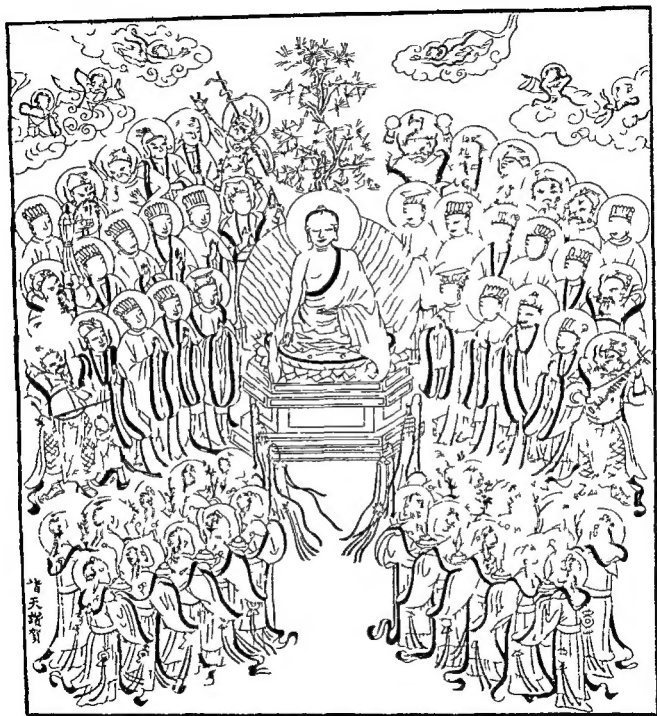


THE
TRAVELS OF FA-HIEN

FÂ-HIEN'S RECORD
OF
BUDDHISTIC KINGDOMS

LEGGE



A
RECORD OF BUDDHISTIC KINGDOMS

BEING AN ACCOUNT BY

THE CHINESE MONK FÂ-HIEN

OF

HIS TRAVELS IN INDIA AND CEYLON

(A D 399-414)

IN SEARCH OF THE BUDDHIST BOOKS OF DISCIPLINE

TRANSLATED AND ANNOTATED

WITH A COREAN RECENSION OF THE CHINESE TEXT

BY

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ORIENTAL PUBLISHERS

DELHI-6

Published by Rajendra Sharma for Oriental Publishers
Palsudi House Gurgaon, Delhi-6
and Printed at Lakshmi Printing Works Delhi-6

FIRST INDIAN REPRINT 1971
Price Rs 30.00

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PREFACE

SEVERAL times during my long residence in Hong Kong I endeavoured to read through the 'Narrative of Fā hien,' but though interested with the graphic details of much of the work its columns bristled so constantly—now with his phonetic representations of Sanskrit words, and now with his substitution for them of their meanings in Chinese characters and I was moreover so much occupied with my own special labours on the Confucian Classics that my success was far from satisfactory. When Dr Eitel's 'Handbook for the Student of Chinese Buddhism' appeared in 1870, the difficulty occasioned by the Sanskrit words and names was removed, but the other difficulty remained, and I was not able to look into the book again for several years. Nor had I much inducement to do so in the two copies of it which I had been able to procure, on poor paper, and printed from blocks badly cut at first and so worn with use as to yield books the reverse of attractive in their appearance to the student.

In the meantime I kept studying the subject of Buddhism from various sources and in 1878 began to lecture, here in Oxford on the Travels with my Davis Chinese scholar, who was at the same time Boden Sanskrit scholar. As we went on I wrote out a translation in English for my own satisfaction of nearly half the narrative. In the beginning of last year I made Fā hien again the subject of lecture wrote out a second translation independent of the former, and pushed on till I had completed the whole.

The want of a good and clear text had been supplied by my friend,

Mr Bunyiu Nanjo, who sent to me from Japan a copy, the text of which is appended to the translation and notes, and of the nature of which some account is given in the Introduction (page 4), and towards the end of this Preface

The present work consists of three parts the Translation of Fā hien's Narrative of his Travels, copious Notes, and the Chinese Text of my copy from Japan

It is for the Translation that I hold myself more especially responsible Portions of it were written out three times, and the whole of it twice While preparing my own version I made frequent reference to previous translations —those of M Abel Rémusat, '*Revu complété, et augmenté d'éclaircissements nouveaux par MM Klaproth et Landresse*' (Paris, 1836), of the Rev Samuel Beal (London 1869), and his revision of it prefixed to his '*Buddhist Records of the Western World*' (Trubner's Oriental Series, 1884), and of Mr Herbert A Giles of H M's Consular Service in China (1877) To these I have to add a series of articles on 'Fa hien and his English Translators' by Mr T Watters, British Consul at I Chang (China Review, 1879 1880) Those articles are of the highest value, displaying accuracy of Chinese scholarship and an extensive knowledge of Buddhism I have regretted that Mr Watters while reviewing others did not himself write out and publish a version of the whole of Fā hien's narrative If he had done so, I should probably have thought that on the whole nothing more remained to be done for the distinguished Chinese pilgrim in the way of translation Mr Watters had to judge of the comparative merits of the versions of Beal and Giles and pronounce on the many points of contention between them I have endeavoured to eschew those matters and have seldom made remarks of a critical nature in defence of renderings of my own

The Chinese narrative runs on without any break It was Klaproth who divided Rémusat's translation into forty chapters The division is helpful to the reader and I have followed it excepting in three or four instances In the reprinted Chinese text the chapters are separated by a circle (O) in the column

In transliterating the names of Chinese characters I have generally

followed the spelling of Morrison rather than the Pekinese, which is now in vogue. We cannot tell exactly what the pronunciation of them was, about fifteen hundred years ago in the time of Fā hien, but the southern mandarin must be a shade nearer to it than that of Peking at the present day. In transliterating the Indian names I have for the most part followed Dr Eitel, with such modification as seemed good and in harmony with growing usage.

For the Notes I can do little more than claim the merit of selection and condensation. My first object in them was to explain what in the text required explanation to an English reader. All Chinese texts and Buddhist texts especially, are new to foreign students. One has to do for them what many hundreds of the ablest scholars in Europe have done for the Greek and Latin Classics during several hundred years, and what the thousands of critics and commentators have been doing for our Sacred Scriptures for nearly eighteen centuries. There are few predecessors in the field of Chinese literature into whose labours translators of the present century can enter. This will be received I hope, as a sufficient apology for the minuteness and length of some of the notes. A second object in them was to teach myself first, and then others something of the history and doctrines of Buddhism. I have thought that they might be learned better in connexion with a lively narrative like that of Fā hien than by reading didactic descriptions and argumentative books. Such has been my own experience. The books which I have consulted for these notes have been many, besides Chinese works. My principal help has been the full and masterly handbook of Eitel, mentioned already, and often referred to as E. H. Spence Hardy's 'Eastern Monachism' (E. M.) and Manual of Buddhism (M. B.) have been constantly in hand as well as Rhys Davids' Buddhism published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge his Hibbert Lectures and his Buddhist Suttas in the Sacred Books of the East and other writings. I need not mention other authorities, having endeavoured always to specify them where I make use of them. My proximity and access to the Bodleian Library and the Indian Institute have been of great advantage.

I may be allowed to say that, so far as my own study of it has gone, I think there are many things in the vast field of Buddhistic literature which still require to be carefully handled. How far, for instance, are we entitled to regard the present *Sûtras* as genuine and sufficiently accurate copies of those which were accepted by the Councils before our Christian era? Can anything be done to trace the rise of the legends and marvels of Śākyamuni's history, which were current so early (as it seems to us) as the time of Fā hien, and which startle us so frequently by similarities between them and narratives in our Gospels? Dr Hermann Oldenberg, certainly a great authority on Buddhistic subjects says that 'a biography of Buddha has not come down to us from ancient times, from the age of the Pāli texts, and, we can safely say, no such biography existed then' ('Buddha—His Life, His Doctrine, His Order,' as translated by Hoey, p 78). He has also (in the same work, pp 99-416, 417) come to the conclusion that the hitherto unchallenged tradition that the Buddha was 'a king's son' must be given up. The name, 'king's son' (in Chinese 太子), always used of the Buddha, certainly requires to be understood in the highest sense. I am content myself to wait for further information on these and other points, as the result of prolonged and careful research.

Dr Rhys Davids has kindly read the proofs of the Translation and Notes, and I most cordially thank him for doing so for his many valuable corrections in the Notes and for other suggestions which I have received from him. I may not always think on various points exactly as he does, but I am not more forward than he is to say with Horace—

Nullus addictus jurare in verba magistri

I have referred above and also in the Introduction, to the Korean text of Fā hien's narrative, which I received from Mr Nanjio. It is on the whole so much superior to the better known texts that I determined to attempt to reproduce it at the end of the little volume so far as our resources here in Oxford would permit. To do so has not been an easy task. The two fonts of Chinese types in the Clarendon Press were prepared primarily for printing the translation of our Sacred

Scriptures, and then extended so as to be available for printing also the Confucian Classics, but a Buddhist work necessarily requires many types not found in them, while many other characters in the Korean recension are peculiar in their forms, and some are what Chinese dictionaries denominate 'vulgar' That we have succeeded so well as we have done is owing chiefly to the intelligence, ingenuity, and untiring attention of Mr J C Pembrey, the Oriental Reader

The pictures that have been introduced were taken from a superb edition of a History of Buddha, republished recently at Hang ch'au in Cheh kiang, and profusely illustrated in the best style of Chinese art I am indebted for the use of it to the Rev J H Sedgwick, University Chinese Scholar

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OXFORD
June, 1886

has himself told us. Fā hien was his clerical name, and means 'Illustrious in the Law, or 'Illustrious master of the Law'. The Shih which often precedes it is an abbreviation of the name of Buddha as Śākya-muni, 'the Śākya, mighty in Love, dwelling in Seclusion and Silence,' and may be taken as equivalent to Buddhist. He is sometimes said to have belonged to the eastern Tsin dynasty' (A D 317-419) and sometimes to 'the Sung' that is the Sung dynasty of the House of Liú (A D 420-478). If he became a full monk at the age of twenty and went to India when he was twenty-five, his long life may have been divided pretty equally between the two dynasties.

2 If there were ever another and larger account of Fā hien's travels than the narrative of which a translation is now given, it has long ceased to be in existence.

In the Catalogue of the imperial library of the Suy dynasty (A D 589-618) the name Fā hien occurs four times. Towards the end of the last section of it (page 22), after a reference to his travels, his labours in translation at Kin ling (another name for Nanking) in conjunction with Buddha bhadra, are described. In the second section, page 15, we find 'A Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms, —with a note saying that it was the work of 'the Sramana Fā hien,' and again, on page 13 we have 'Narrative of Fā hien in two Books,' and 'Narrative of Fā hien's Travels in one Book'. But all these three entries may possibly belong to different copies of the same work, the first and the other two being in separate subdivisions of the Catalogue.

In the two Chinese copies of the narrative in my possession the title is 'Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms'. In the Japanese or Korean recension subjoined to this translation, the title is twofold: first, 'Narrative of the Distinguished Monk, Fā hien,' and then, more at large, 'Incidents of Travels in India, by the Śramana of the Eastern Tsin Fā-hien, recorded by himself'.

There is still earlier attestation of the existence of our little work than the Suy Catalogue. The Catalogue Raisonné of the imperial library of the present dynasty (chap 71) mentions two quotations from it by Le Táo-yuen, a geographical writer of the dynasty of the Northern Wei.

(A D 386-584) one of them containing 89 characters, and the other 276, both of them given as from the 'Narrative of FÁ hien

In all catalogues subsequent to that of Suy our work appears. The evidence for its authenticity and genuineness is all that could be required. It is clear to myself that the 'Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms' and the 'Narrative of his Travels by FÁ hien' were designations of one and the same work, and that it is doubtful whether any larger work on the same subject was ever current. With regard to the text subjoined to my translation, it was published in Japan in 1779. The editor had before him four recensions of the narrative: those of the Sung and Ming dynasties with appendixes on the names of certain characters in them, that of Japan, and that of Corea. He wisely adopted the Corean text, published in accordance with a royal rescript in 1726, so far as I can make out, but the different readings of the other texts are all given in top notes, instead of foot notes as with us, this being one of the points in which customs in the east and west go by contraries. Very occasionally, the editor indicates by a single character, equivalent to 'right' or 'wrong', which reading in his opinion is to be preferred. In the notes to the present republication of the Corean text, S stands for Sung, M for Ming, and J for Japanese, R for right and W for wrong. I have taken the trouble to give all the various readings (amounting to more than 300) partly as a curiosity and to make my text complete, and partly to show how, in the transcription of writings in whatever language, such variations are sure to occur,

maculae quas aut incuria fudit,

Aut humana parum cavit natura,

while on the whole they very slightly affect the meaning of the document.

The editors of the Catalogue Raisonné intimate their doubts of the good taste and reliability of all FÁ hien's statements. It offends them that he should call central India the 'Middle Kingdom' and China, which to them was the true and only Middle Kingdom but a Border land — it offends them as the vaunting language of a Buddhist writer whereas the reader will see in the expressions only an instance of what FÁ hien calls his simple straightforwardness.

As an instance of his unreliability they refer to his account of the Buddhism of Khoten whereas it is well known they say, that the Khoteners from ancient times till now have been Mohammedans,—as if they could have been so 170 years before Mohammed was born, and 222 years before the year of the Hegira! And this criticism in China The Catalogue was ordered by the K'ien lung emperor in 1722. Between three and four hundred of the 'Great Scholars' of the empire were engaged on it in various departments, and thus egregiously ignorant did they show themselves of all beyond the limits of their own country, and even of the literature of that country itself.

Much of what Fâ hien tells his readers of Buddhist miracles and legends is indeed unreliable and grotesque, but we have from him the truth as to what he saw and heard.

3 In concluding this introduction I wish to call attention to some estimates of the number of Buddhists in the world which have become current, believing, as I do, that the smallest of them is much above what is correct.

1 In a note on the first page of his work on the Bhilsa Topes (1854) General Cunningham says 'The Christians number about 270 millions, the Buddhists about 222 millions, who are distributed as follows —China 170 millions, Japan 25, Anam 14, Siam 3, Ava 8, Nepál 1, and Ceylon 1, total, 222 millions.

11 In his article on M. J. Barthélemy Saint Hilaire's 'Le Bouddha et sa Religion' republished in his *Chips from a German Workshop*, vol. 1 (1868), Professor Max Muller (p. 215) says, 'The young prince became the founder of a religion which after more than two thousand years is still professed by 455 millions of human beings, and he appends the following note: "Though truth is not settled by majorities, it would be interesting to know which religion counts at the present moment the largest numbers of believers. Berghaus, in his 'Physical Atlas, gives the following division of the human race according to religion —" Buddhists 31.2 per cent, Christians 30.7, Mohammedans 15.7, Brahmanists 13.4, Heathens 8.7, and Jews 0.3." As Berghaus does not distinguish the Buddhists in China from the followers of Confucius and Laotse, the first

place on the scale belongs really to Christianity. It is difficult in China to say to what religion a man belongs, as the same person may profess two or three. The emperor himself, after sacrificing according to the ritual of Confucius, visits a Tao ssé temple, and afterwards bows before an image of Fo in a Buddhist chapel. (*"Mélanges Asiatiques de St Pétersbourg"* vol II p 374.)

III Both these estimates are exceeded by Dr T W Rhys Davids (intimating also the uncertainty of the statements, and that numbers are no evidence of truth) in the introduction to his *'Manual of Buddhism'*. The Buddhists there appear as amounting in all to 500 millions — 30 millions of Southern Buddhists, in Ceylon, Burma, Siam, Anam, and India (Jains), and 470 millions of Northern Buddhists, of whom nearly 33 millions are assigned to Japan, and 414 686,974 to the eighteen provinces of China proper. According to him, Christians amount to about 26 per cent of mankind, Hindus to about 13, Mohammedans to about 12½, Buddhists to about 40, and Jews to about ½.

In regard to all these estimates, it will be observed that the immense numbers assigned to Buddhism are made out by the multitude of Chinese with which it is credited. Subtract Cunningham's 170 millions of Chinese from his total of 222 and there remains only 52 millions of Buddhists. Subtract Davids (say) 414½ millions of Chinese from his total of 500, and there remain only 85½ millions for Buddhism. Of the numbers assigned to other countries as well as of their whole populations, I am in considerable doubt excepting in the cases of Ceylon and India, but the greatness of the estimates turns upon the immense multitudes said to be in China. I do not know what total population Cunningham allowed for that country nor on what principle he allotted 170 millions of it to Buddhism, — perhaps he halved his estimate of the whole, whereas Berghaus and Davids allotted to it the highest estimates that have been given of the people.

But we have no certain information of the population of China. At an interview with the former Chinese ambassador, Kwo Sung tào, in Paris, in 1878, I begged him to write out for me the amount with the

authority for it, and he assured me that it could not be done. I have read probably almost everything that has been published on the subject and endeavoured by methods of my own to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion,—without reaching a result which I can venture to lay before the public. My impression has been that 400 millions is hardly an exaggeration.

But supposing that we had reliable returns of the whole population, how shall we proceed to apportion that among Confucianists, Táoists, and Buddhists? Confucianism is the orthodoxy of China. The common name for it is *Jû Chiao* 'the Doctrines held by the Learned Class' entrance into the circle of which is with a few insignificant exceptions open to all the people. The mass of them and the masses under their influence are preponderatingly Confucian and in the observance of ancestral worship, the most remarkable feature of the religion proper of China from the earliest times, of which Confucius was not the author but the prophet, an overwhelming majority are regular and assiduous.

Among 'the strange principles' which the emperor of the Kang-hsi period in one of his famous Sixteen Precepts, exhorted his people to 'discountenance and put away, in order to exalt the correct doctrine, Buddhism and Táoism were both included. If as stated in the note quoted from Professor Muller, the emperor countenances both the Táoist worship and the Buddhist, he does so for reasons of state,—to please especially his Buddhistic subjects in Thibet and Mongolia, and not to offend the many whose superstitious fancies incline to Táoism.

When I went out and in as a missionary among the Chinese people for about thirty years, it sometimes occurred to me that only the inmates of their monasteries and the recluses of both systems should be enumerated as Buddhists and Táoists but I was in the end constrained to widen that judgment and to admit a considerable following of both among the people who have neither received the tonsure nor assumed the yellow top. Dr Eitel, in concluding his discussion of this point in his *Lecture on Buddhism an Event in History* says 'It is not too much to say that most Chinese are theoretically Confucianists, but emotionally Buddhists or Táoists. But fairness requires us to add that, though the

mans of the people are more or less influenced by Buddhist doctrines, yet the people, as a whole, have no respect for the Buddhist church and habitually sneer at Buddhist priests' For the 'most' in the former of these two sentences I would substitute 'nearly all,' and between my friend's 'but' and 'emotionally,' I would introduce 'many are' and would not care to contest his conclusion farther. It does seem to me preposterous to credit Buddhism with the whole of the vast population of China, the great majority of whom are Confucianists. My own opinion is that its adherents are not so many as those even of Mohammedanism, and that instead of being the most numerous of the religions (so called) of the world it is only entitled to occupy the fifth place, ranking below Christianity Confucianism, Brahmanism and Mohammedanism, and followed, some distance off, by Tàoism. To make a table of per centages of mankind, and assign to each system its proportion is to seem to be wise where we are deplorably ignorant, and moreover, if our means of information were much better than they are, our figures would merely show the outward adherence. A fractional per centage might tell more for one system than a very large integral one for another.

THE
TRAVELS OF FÂ-HIEN,
OR
RECORD OF BUDDHISTIC KINGDOMS

CHAPTER I

FROM CHANG-GAN TO THE SANDY DESERT

FA-HIEN had been living in Chang-gan¹ Deploring the mutilated and imperfect state of the collection of the Books of Discipline, in the second year of the period Hwǎng-che, being the Ke-hâe year of the cycle², he entered into an engagement with Hwuy king, Táo ching

¹ Chang gan is still the name of the principal district (and its city) in the department of Se-gan Shen se. It had been the capital of the first empire of Han (B.C. 202-A.D. 24) as it subsequently was that of Suy (A.D. 589-618). The empire of the eastern Tsin, towards the close of which Fa hien lived had its capital at or near Nan king and Chang gan was the capital of the principal of the three Tsin kingdoms which with many other minor ones maintained a semi-independence of Tsin their rulers sometimes even assuming the title of emperor.

² The period Hwǎng che embraced from A.D. 399 to 414 being the greater portion of the reign of Yao Hing of the After Tsin a powerful prince. He adopted Hwǎng-che for the style of his reign in 399 and the cyclical name of that year was Kǎng tsze. It is not possible at this distance of time to explain if it could be explained, how Fâ hien came to say that Ke hâe was the second year of the period. It seems most reasonable to suppose that he set out on his pilgrimage in A.D. 399 the cycle name of which was Ke hâe as 二, the second year instead of 一, the first, might easily creep into the text. In the

Memours of Eminent Monks it is said that our author started in the third year of the period Lung-gan of the eastern Tsin, which was A.D. 399

Hwuy ying, and Hwuy wei¹, that they should go to India and seek for the Disciplinary Rules²

After starting from Chang gan they passed through Lung³, and came to the kingdom of Keen-kwei⁴, where they stopped for the summer retreat⁵. When that was over, they went forward to the kingdom of Now tan⁶, crossed the mountain of Yang low and reached

¹ These like Fâ hien itself, are all what we might call clerical' names appellations given to the parties as monks or *tramaças*

² The Buddhist tripitaka or canon consists of three collections containing, according to Etel (p 150) 'doctrinal aphorisms (or statements purporting to be from Buddha himself) works on discipline and works on metaphysics — called *sûtra vinaya* and *abhidharma* in Chinese king (經) *ieh* (律), and *lun* (論), or texts, laws or rules, and discussions. Dr Rhys Davids objects to the designation of 'metaphysics' as used of the *abhidharma* works, saying that they bear much more the relation to 'dharma' which 'by law bears to law than that which metaphysics bears to 'physics' (Hibbert Lectures p 49). However this be, it was about the *vinaya* works that Fâ hien was chiefly concerned. He wanted a good code of the rules for the government of the Order in all its internal and external relations.

³ Lung embraced the western part of Shen se and the eastern part of Kan sùh. The name remains in Lung Chow, in the extreme west of Shen se.

⁴ Keen kwei was the second king of 'the Western Tsin. His family was of northern or barbarous origin from the tribe of the Seen pe, with the surname of K'eh fuh. The first king was Kwo jin and received his appointment from the sovereign of the chief Tsin kingdom in 385. He was succeeded in 388 by his brother the Keen kwei of the text who was very prosperous in 398 and took the title of king of Tsin. Fa hien would find him at his capital somewhere in the present department of Lan chow, Kan sùh.

⁵ Under *varshâs* or *varshâvasâna* (Pâh, vassa Spence Hardy vass), Etel (p 163) says — One of the most ancient institutions of Buddhist discipline requiring all ecclesiastics to spend the rainy season in a monastery in devotional exercises. Chinese Buddhists naturally substituted the hot season for the rainy (from the 16th day of the 5th to the 15th day of the 9th Chinese month).

⁶ During the troubled period of the Tsin dynasty there were five (usurping) Leang sovereignties in the western part of the empire (五涼). The name Leang remains in the department of Leang chow in the northern part of Kan sùh. The southern Leang arose in 397 under a Tuh shih Wû kû, who was succeeded

the emporium of Chang yih¹. There they found the country so much disturbed that travelling on the roads was impossible for them. Its king however, was very attentive to them, kept them (in his capital) and acted the part of their *dānapati*².

Here they met with Che-yen Hwuy keen Sǎng shāo Páo yun and Sǎng ling³, and in pleasant association with them, as bound on the same journey with themselves they passed the summer retreat (of that year)⁴ together, resuming after it their travelling, and going on to Tun-hwang⁵, (the chief town) in the frontier territory of defence extending for about 80 *le* from east to west and about 40 from north to south. Their company, increased as it had been halted there for some days more than a month after which Fā hien and his four friends started first in the suite of an envoy⁶, having separated (for a time) from Páo yun and his associates

in 399 by a brother Le juh koo; and he again by his brother the Now tan of the text in 402, who was not yet king therefore when Fā hien and his friends reached his capital. How he is represented as being so may be accounted for in various ways of which it is not necessary to write.

¹ Chang yih is still the name of a district in Kan chow department Kan sūh. It is a long way north and west from Lan-chow and not far from the Great Wall. Its king at this time was, probably Twan yeh of the northern Leang.

² *Dāna* is the name for religious charity the first of the six *pāramitās* or means of attaining to *nirvāna* and a *dānapati* is one who practises *dāna* and thereby crosses (the) sea of misery. It is given as a title of honour to all who support the cause of Buddhism by acts of charity especially to founders and patrons of monasteries,—see Eitel p. 29.

³ Of these pilgrims with their clerical names the most distinguished was Páo yun who translated various Sanskrit works on his return from India of which only one seems to be now existing. He died in 449. See Nanjio's Catalogue of the Tripitaka col. 417.

⁴ This was the second summer since the pilgrims left Chang gan. We are now therefore probably in A.D. 400.

⁵ Tun hwang (lat. 39° 40' N, lon. 94° 50' E) is still the name of one of the two districts constituting the department of Gan-se the most western of the prefectures of Kan sūh, beyond the termination of the Great Wall.

⁶ Who this envoy was and where he was going we do not know. The text will not admit of any other translation.

Le Hsiao¹, the prefect of Tun hwang had supplied them with the means of crossing the desert (before them) in which there are many evil demons and hot winds (Travellers) who encounter them perish all to a man. There is not a bird to be seen in the air above, nor an animal on the ground below. Though you look all round most earnestly to find where you can cross you know not where to make your choice, the only mark and indication being the dry bones of the dead (left upon the sand)²

CHAPTER II

ON TO SHEN SHEN AND THENCE TO KHOTEN

AFTER travelling for seventeen days a distance we may calculate of about 1500 le, (the pilgrims) reached the kingdom of Shen shen³, a

¹ Le Hsiao was a native of Lung se a man of learning able and kindly in his government. He was appointed governor or prefect of Tun hwang by the king of the northern Leang⁴ in 400 and there he sustained himself, becoming by and by duke of western Leang till he died in 417.

² 'The river of sand' the great desert of Kobi or Gobi, having various other names. It was a great task which the pilgrims had now before them,—to cross this desert. The name of river in the Chinese misleads the reader and he thinks of the crossing it as of crossing a stream, but they had to traverse it from east to west. In his Vocabulary of Proper Names p 23 Dr Porter Smith says — It extends from the eastern frontier of Mongolia, south westward to the further frontier of Turkestan, to within six miles of Icht, the chief town of Khoten. It thus comprises some twenty three degrees of longitude in length and from three to ten degrees of latitude in breadth, being about 200 miles in its greatest length. In some places it is arable. Some idea may be formed of the terror with which this 'Sea of Sand' with its vast billows of shifting sands is regarded from the legend that in one of the storms 360 cities were all buried within the space of twenty four hours. See also Gilmour's 'Among the Mongols,' chap 5.

³ An account is given of the kingdom of Shen shen in the 96th of the Books of the first Han dynasty down to its becoming a dependency of China about a.c. 80. The greater portion of that is now accessible to the English reader in a translation by Mr Wylie in the Journal of the Anthropological Institute August 1880. Mr Wylie says — 'Although we may not

country rugged and hilly, with a thin and barren soil. The clothes of the common people are coarse and like those worn in our land of Han¹, some wearing felt and others coarse serge or cloth of hair,—this was the only difference seen among them. The king professed (our) Law, and there might be in the country more than four thousand monks²,

be able to identify Shen shen with certainty, yet we have sufficient indications to give an approximate idea of its position, as being south of and not far from lake Lob'. He then goes into an exhibition of those indications which I need not transcribe. It is sufficient for us to know that the capital city was not far from Lob or Lop Nor, into which in lon 38° E the Tarim flows. Fa hien estimated its distance to be 1500 le from Tun hwang. He and his companions must have gone more than twenty five miles a day to accomplish the journey in seventeen days.

¹ This is the name which Fâ hien always uses when he would speak of China, his native country, as a whole calling it from the great dynasty which had ruled it, first and last for between four and five centuries. Occasionally as we shall immediately see he speaks of 'the territory of Ts'in or Chin, but intending thereby only the kingdom of Ts'in, having its capital as described in the first note on the last chapter, in Ch ang gan.

² So I prefer to translate the character 僧 (sāṅ) rather than by 'priests. Even in Christianity, beyond the priestly privilege which belongs to all believers, I object to the ministers of any denomination or church calling themselves or being called 'priests' and much more is the name inapplicable to the śramanas or bhikṣus of Buddhism which acknowledges no God in the universe no soul in man and has no services of sacrifice or prayer in its worship. The only difficulty in the use of monks is caused by the members of the sect in Japan which since the middle of the fifteenth century has abolished the prohibition against marrying on the part of its ministers and other prohibitions in diet and dress. Sāṅ and sāṅ keā represent the Sanskrit sangha which denotes (E. H. p. 117) first, an assembly of monks or bhikṣu sangha, constituted by at least four members, and empowered to hear confession to grant absolution to admit persons to holy orders, &c., secondly the third constituent of the Buddhistic Trinity a dedication of the communio sanctorum or the Buddhist order. The name is used by our author of the monks collectively or individually as belonging to the class, and may be considered as synonymous with the name śramana, which will immediately claim our attention.

who were all students of the *hinayāna*¹ The common people of this and other kingdoms (in that region), as well as the *śramans*², all practise the rules of India³, only that the latter do so more exactly and the former more loosely. So (the travellers) found it in all the kingdoms through which they went on their way from this to the west, only that each had its own peculiar barbarous speech⁴ (The monks), however, who had (given up the worldly life) and quitted their families were all students of Indian books and the Indian language. Here they stayed for about a month, and then proceeded on their journey, fifteen days walking to the north west bringing them to the country of Woo-e⁵. In this also there were more

¹ Meaning the 'small vehicle or conveyance'. There are in Buddhism the *trīyāna* or 'three different means of salvation' i.e. of conveyance across the *samsāra*, or sea of transmigration, to the shores of *nirvāna*. Afterwards the term was used to designate the different phases of development through which the Buddhist dogma passed, known as the *mahāyāna*, *hinayāna*, and *madhyamayāna*. 'The *hinayāna* is the simplest vehicle of salvation corresponding to the first of the three degrees of saintship. Characteristics of it are the preponderance of active moral asceticism and the absence of speculative mysticism and quietism. E. H. pp. 151-2, 45 and 117.

² The name for India is here the same as in the former chapter and throughout the book—Teen chuh (天竺) the chuh being pronounced probably in Fa hien's time as tuk. How the earliest name for India, *Shin tuk* or *duk*=Scinde came to be changed into *Thien tuk* it would take too much space to explain. I believe it was done by the Buddhists wishing to give a good auspicious name to the fatherland of their Law and calling it the Heavenly Tuk just as the Mohammedans call Arabia the Heavenly region (天方) and the court of China itself is called the Celestial (天朝).

³ *Śramaṇa* may in English take the place of *Śramana* (Pali *Samana* in Chinese *Sha măn*) the name for Buddhist monks as those who have separated themselves from (left) their families and quieted their hearts from all intrusion of desire and lust. It is employed first as a general name for ascetics of all denominations and, secondly as a general designation of Buddhist monks. E. H. pp. 130, 131.

⁴ Tartar or Mongolian.

⁵ Woo-e has not been identified. Watters (*China Review* viii 115) says—We cannot be far wrong if we place it in Kharaschar or between that and

than four thousand monks, all students of the hinayāna. They were very strict in their rules so that śramans from the territory of Ts'in¹ were all unprepared for their regulations. Fā hien, through the management of Foo Kung-sun, maître d'hôtel², was able to remain (with his company in the monastery where they were received) for more than two months, and here they were rejoined by Pāo yun and his friends³. (At the end of that time) the people of Woo neglected the duties of propriety and righteousness and treated the strangers in so niggardly a manner that Che-yen, Hwuy keen, and Hwuy wei went back towards Káo ch'ang⁴ hoping to obtain there the means of continuing their journey. Fā hien and the rest however, through the liberality of Foo Kung-sun, managed to go straight forward in a south west direction. They found the country uninhabited as they went along. The difficulties

Hutscha. It must have been a country of considerable size to have so many monks in it.

¹ This means in one sense China, but Fa hien in his use of the name was only thinking of the three Ts'in states of which I have spoken in a previous note, perhaps only of that from the capital of which he had himself set out.

² This sentence altogether is difficult to construe, and Mr Watters in the 'China Review', was the first to disentangle more than one knot in it. I am obliged to adopt the reading of 行堂 in the Chinese editions instead of the 行當 in the Korean text. It seems clear that only one person is spoken of as assisting the travellers, and his name as appears a few sentences farther on was Foo Kung-sun. The 行堂, which immediately follows the surname Foo (符), must be taken as the name of his office corresponding as the 行 shows, to that of le maître d'hôtel in a Roman Catholic abbey. I was once indebted myself to the kind help of such an officer at a monastery in Canton province. The Buddhistic name for him is uddesika = overseer. The Kung-sun that follows his surname indicates that he was descended from some feudal lord in the old times of the Chow dynasty. We know indeed of no ruling house which had the surname of Foo but its adoption by the grandson of a ruler can be satisfactorily accounted for, and his posterity continued to call themselves Kung-sun, duke or lord's grandson, and so retain the memory of the rank of their ancestor.

³ Whom they had left behind them at T'un hwang.

⁴ The country of the Ouighurs, the district around the modern Turfan or Tangut.

which they encountered in crossing the streams and on their route, and the sufferings which they endured, were unparalleled in human experience, but in the course of a month and five days they succeeded in reaching Yu teen ¹

CHAPTER III

KHOTEN PROCESSIONS OF IMAGES THE KING'S NEW MONASTERY

YU TEEN is a pleasant and prosperous kingdom, with a numerous and flourishing population. The inhabitants all profess our Law, and join together in its religious music for their enjoyment ². The monks amount to several myriads, most of whom are students of the mahâyâna ³. They all receive their food from the common store ⁴. Throughout the

¹ Yu teen is better known as Khoten. Dr P Smith gives (p 11) the following description of it — 'A large district on the south west of the desert of Gobi, embracing all the country south of Oksu and Yarkand along the northern base of the Kwun lun mountains for more than 300 miles from east to west. The town of the same name now called Ilcht, is in an extensive plain on the Khoten river, in lat 37° N, and lon 80° 35' E. After the Tungân insurrection against Chinese rule in 1862 the Mufu Haji Habeeboolla was made governor of Khoten and held the office till he was murdered by Yakoub Beg who became for a time the conqueror of all Chinese Turkestan. Khoten produces fine linen and cotton stuffs, jade ornaments, copper grain, and fruits. The name in Sanskrit is Kustana (E. H. p 60).

² This fondness for music among the Khoteners is mentioned by Hsüan Chwang and others.

³ Mahâyâna, see note 1 on p 14. It is a later form of the Buddhist doctrine the second phase of its development corresponding to the state of a Bodhisattva, who being able to transport himself and all mankind to nirvana, may be compared to a huge vehicle. See Davids on the Key note of the Great Vehicle Hibbert Lectures p 254.

⁴ Fa hien supplies sufficient information of how the common store or funds of the monasteries were provided, farther on in chapters xvi and xxxix as well as in other passages. As the point is important, I will give here from Davids fifth Hibbert Lecture (p 178) some of the words of the dying Buddha, taken from The Book of the Great Decease as illustrating the statement in this text — 'So

country the houses of the people stand apart like (separate) stars, and each family has a small *tope*¹ reared in front of its door. The smallest of these may be twenty cubits high, or rather more². They make (in the monasteries) rooms for monks from all quarters³, the use of which is given to travelling monks who may arrive, and who are provided with whatever else they require.

The lord of the country lodged Fā hien and the others comfortably, and supplied their wants in a monastery² called Gomati³, of the mahāyāna school. Attached to it there are three thousand monks, who

long as the brethren shall persevere in kindness of action speech and thought among the saints, both in public and private: so long as they shall divide without partiality and share in common with the upright and holy all such things as they receive in accordance with the just provisions of the order down even to the mere contents of a begging bowl: so long may the brethren be expected not to decline but to prosper.

¹ The Chinese 塔 (*tā* ah, in Cantonese *tāp*) as used by Fā hien is no doubt, a phonetisation of the Sanskrit *stūpa* or *Pāli thūpa*, and it is well in translating to use for the structures described by him the name of *topes*—made familiar by Cunningham and other Indian antiquarians. In the thirteenth chapter there is an account of one built under the superintendence of Buddha himself 'as a model for all *topes* in future. They were usually in the form of bell shaped domes, and were solid surmounted by a long tapering pinnacle formed with a series of rings varying in number. But their form I suppose, was often varied: just as we have in China pagodas of different shapes. There are several *topes* now in the Indian Institute at Oxford brought from Buddha Gayā, but the largest of them is much smaller than the smallest of those of Khoten. They were intended chiefly to contain relics of Buddha and famous masters of his Law, but what relics could there be in the Triratna *topes* of chapter xvi?

² The meaning here is much disputed. The author does not mean to say that the monks' apartments were made 'square' but that the monasteries were made with many guest chambers or spare rooms.

³ The Sanskrit term for a monastery is used here—*Saṅghārāma* 'gardens of the assembly' originally denoting only 'the surrounding park, but afterwards transferred to the whole of the premises' (E II, p 118). Gomati, the name of this monastery means rich in cows.

are called to their meals by the sound of a bell. When they enter the refectory, their demeanour is marked by a reverent gravity, and they take their seats in regular order, all maintaining a perfect silence. No sound is heard from their alms bowls and other utensils. When any of these pure men¹ require food, they are not allowed to call out (to the attendants) for it, but only make signs with their hands.

Hwuy-king, Tào chung, and Hwuy-tah set out in advance towards the country of K'eeh ch'á², but Fā hien and the others, wishing to see the procession of images, remained behind for three months. There are in this country four³ great monasteries, not counting the smaller ones. Beginning on the first day of the fourth month, they sweep and water the streets inside the city, making a grand display in the lanes and byways. Over the city gate they pitch a large tent, grandly adorned in all possible ways, in which the king and queen, with their ladies brilliantly arrayed⁴, take up their residence (for the time).

The monks of the Gomati monastery being mahāyāna students, and held in greatest reverence by the king, took precedence of all the others in the procession. At a distance of three or four *le* from the city they made a four wheeled image car, more than thirty cubits high, which looked like the great hall (of a monastery) moving along. The seven precious substances⁵ were grandly displayed about it, with silken streamers and

¹ A denomination for the monks as *vimala*, undefiled¹ or 'pure. Giles makes it the menials that attend on the monks' but I have not met with it in that application.

² K'eeh ch'á has not been clearly identified. Rémusat made it Cashmere, Klaproth Iskardu. Beal makes it Kartchou and Eitel Khasa 'an ancient tribe on the Paropamisus, the Kasiar of Ptolemy. I think it was Ladak or some well known place in it. Hwuy tah unless that name be an alias appears here for the first time.

³ Instead of 'four' the Chinese copies of the text have *fourteen*, but the Korean reading is probably more correct.

⁴ There may have been as Giles says, 'maids of honour' but the character does not say so.

⁵ The *Sapta ratna*, gold, silver lapis lazuli rock crystal rubies diamonds

canopies hanging all around. The (chief) image¹ stood in the middle of the car, with two Bodhisattvas² in attendance on it, while devas³ were made to follow in waiting, all brilliantly carved in gold and silver, and hanging in the air. When (the car) was a hundred paces from the gate the king put off his crown of state, changed his dress for a fresh suit, and with bare feet, carrying in his hands flowers and incense, and with two rows of attending followers went out at the gate to meet the image, and, with his head and face (bowed to the ground) he did homage at its feet, and then scattered the flowers and burnt the incense. When the image was entering the gate, the queen and the brilliant ladies with her in the gallery above scattered far and wide all kinds of flowers, which floated about and fell promiscuously to the ground. In this way everything was done to promote the dignity of the occasion. The carriages of the monasteries were all different, and each one had its own day for the procession. (The ceremony) began on the first day of the fourth month, and ended on the fourteenth after which the king and queen returned to the palace.

Seven or eight *le* to the west of the city there is what is called the King's New monastery, the building of which took eighty years and extended over three reigns. It may be 250 cubits in height, rich in elegant

or emeralds, and agate. See *Sacred Books of the East* (Davids' Buddhist Suttas) vol. xi, p. 249.

¹ No doubt that of Śākyamuni himself.

² A Bodhisattva is one whose essence has become intelligence—a Being who will in some future birth as a man (not necessarily or usually the next) attain to Buddhahood. The name does not include those Buddhas who have not yet attained to parinirvāṇa. The symbol of the state is an elephant fording a river. Popularly its abbreviated form *P ũ sâ* is used in China for any idol or image, here the name has its proper signification.

³ 諸天 'all the thien, or simply 'the thien taken as plural. But in Chinese the character called thien (天) denotes heaven or Heaven, and is interchanged with T'ien and Shang T'ien, meaning God. With the Buddhists it denotes the devas or Brahmanic gods or all the inhabitants of the six devalokas. The usage shows the antagonism between Buddhism and Brahmanism and still more that between it and Confucianism.

carving and inlaid work, covered above with gold and silver, and finished throughout with a combination of all the precious substances. Behind the tope there has been built a Hall of Buddha¹, of the utmost magnificence and beauty, the beams, pillars, venetian doors, and windows being all overlaid with gold leaf. Besides this the apartments for the monks are imposingly and elegantly decorated, beyond the power of words to express. Of whatever things of highest value and preciousness the kings in the six countries on the east of the (Tsung) range of mountains² are possessed, they contribute the greater portion (to this monastery), using but a small portion of them themselves³.

¹ Giles and Williams call this 'the oratory of Buddha.' But 'oratory' gives the idea of a small apartment, whereas the name here leads the mind to think of a large 'hall.' I once accompanied the monks of a large monastery from their refectory to the Hall of Buddha, which was a lofty and spacious apartment splendidly fitted up.

² The Tsung, or 'Onion' range, called also the Belurtagh mountains, including the Karakorum, and forming together the connecting links between the more northern Teen shan and the K'un lun mountains on the north of Tibet. It would be difficult to name the six countries which Fa hien had in mind.

³ This seems to be the meaning here. My first impression of it was that the author meant to say that the contributions which they received were spent by the monks mainly on the buildings and only to a small extent for themselves, and I still hesitate between that view and the one in the version.

There occurs here the binomial phrase *kung yang* (供養) which is one of the most common throughout the narrative and is used not only of support in the way of substantial contributions given to monks' monasteries, and Buddhism, but generally of all Buddhistic worship if I may use that term in the connexion. Let me here quote two or three sentences from Davids' Manual (pp 168-170) — 'The members of the order are secured from want. There is no place in the Buddhist scheme for churches: the offering of flowers before the sacred tree or image of the Buddha takes the place of worship. Buddhism does not acknowledge the efficacy of prayers, and in the warm countries where Buddhists live the occasional reading of the law or preaching of the word in public can take place best in the open air. By moonlight under a simple roof of trees or palms. There are five principal kinds of meditation which in Buddhism takes the place of prayer.'

CHAPTER IV

THROUGH THE TSUNG OR 'ONION' MOUNTAINS TO KEEH-CH'Â,—
PROBABLY SKARDO, OR SOME CITY MORE TO THE EAST IN
LADAK

WHEN the processions of images in the fourth month were over, Săng shão, by himself alone, followed a Tartar who was an earnest follower of the Law¹, and proceeded towards Kophene². Fâ hien and the others went forward to the kingdom of Tsze-hoh, which it took them twenty five days to reach³. Its king was a strenuous follower of our Law⁴, and had (around him) more than a thousand monks mostly students of the mahâyâna. Here (the travellers) abode fifteen days, and then went south for four days, when they found themselves among the Tsung ling mountains, and reached the country of Yu hwuy⁵, where they

¹ This Tartar is called a 道人 'a man of the Tão or faith of Buddha. It occurs several times in the sequel, and denotes the man who is not a Buddhist outwardly only but inwardly as well, whose faith is always making itself manifest in his ways. The name may be used of followers of other systems of faith besides Buddhism

² See the account of the kingdom of Kophene in the 96th Book of the first Han Records p 78 where its capital is said to be 1200 li from Chang gan. It was the whole or part of the present Cabulistan. The name of Kophene is connected with the river Kophes supposed to be the same as the present Cabul river which falls into the Indus from the west, at Attock, after passing Peshâwur. The city of Cabul the capital of Afghanistan may be the Kophene of the text but we do not know that Săng shão and his guide got so far west. The text only says that they set out from Khoten 'towards it'

³ Tsze hoh has not been identified. Beal thinks it was Yarkand, which however was north west from Khoten. Watters (China Review p 135) rather approves the suggestion of 'Tashkurgan in Surikul' for it. As he took Fâ hien twenty five days to reach it, he must have been at least 150 miles from Khoten.

⁴ The king is described here by a Buddhistic phrase denoting the possession of viriyabala, 'the power of energy, persevering exertion—one of the five moral powers' (E. H., p 170)

⁵ Nor has Yu hwuy been clearly identified. Evidently it was directly south from

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halted and kept their retreat: When this was over, they went on among the hills¹ for twenty five days, and go² to K ech-châ³, there rejoining Hwuy ling⁴ and his two companions

CHAPTER V

GREAT QUINQUENNIAL ASSEMBLY OF MONKS RELICS OF BUDDHISM PRODUCTIONS OF THE COUNTRY

It happened that the king of the country was then holding the paficha parishad, that is in Chinese, the great quinquennial assembly.¹ When this is to be held, the king requests the presence of the Śramanas from all quarters (of his kingdom). They come (as if) in clouds, and when they are all assembled their place of session is grandly decorated with Silken streamers and canopies are hung out in it, and water lilies in gold and silver are made and fixed up behind the places where (the chief of them) are to sit. When clean mats have been spread, and they are all seated, the king and his ministers present their offerings according to rule and law. (The assembly takes place), in the first second, or third month, for the most part in the spring.

Tsze hoh and among the Onion mountains. Watters hazards the conjecture that it was the Aktasch of our present maps

¹ This was the retreat already twice mentioned as kept by the pilgrims in the summer the different phraseology 'quiet rest, without any mention of the season indicating their approach to India, E H p 168 Two if not three, years had elapsed since they left Chang gan Are we now with them in 402?

² This is the Korean reading (山) much preferable to the 山 of the Chinese editions

³ See p 18 note 2 Watters approves of Klaproth's determination of Kech châ to be Iskardu or Skardo There are difficulties in connexion with the view but it has the advantage to my mind very great, of bringing the pilgrims across the Indus. The passage might be accomplished with ease at this point of the river's course and therefore is not particularly mentioned.

⁴ Who had preceded them from Khoten p 18

⁵ See Eitel p 89 He describes the assembly as 'an ecclesiastical conference first instituted by king Asoka for general confession of sins and inculcation of morality

After the king has held the assembly he further exhorts the ministers to make other and special offerings. The doing of this extends over one, two, three five, or even seven days, and when all is finished, he takes his own riding horse, saddles, bridles, and waits on him himself¹, while he makes the noblest and most important minister of the kingdom mount him. Then, taking fine white woollen cloth all sorts of precious things, and articles which the Sramans require, he distributes them among them, uttering vows at the same time along with all his ministers, and when this distribution has taken place he again redeems (whatever he wishes) from the monks².

The country, being among the hills and cold, does not produce the other cereals, and only the wheat gets ripe. After the monks have received their annual (portion of this), the mornings suddenly show the hoar frost, and on this account the king always begs the monks to make the wheat ripen³ before they receive their portion. There is in the country a spittoon which belonged to Buddha, made of stone and in colour like his alms bowl. There is also a tooth of Buddha, for which the people have reared a tope, connected with which there are more than a thousand monks and their disciples⁴, all students of the hinayāna. To the east of these hills the dress of the common people is of coarse materials, as in our country of Ts'in, but here also⁵ there were among them the differences of fine woollen cloth and of serge or haircloth. The rules observed by the Śramans are remarkable and too numerous to be mentioned in detail. The country is in the midst of the Onion range

¹ The text of this sentence is perplexing, and all translators, including myself have been puzzled by it.

² See what we are told of king Aśoka's grant of all the Jambudvīpa to the monks in chapter xxvii. There are several other instances of similar gifts in the Mahāvamsa.

³ Watters calls attention to this as showing that the monks of K'eeh-ch'ü had the credit of possessing weather controlling powers.

⁴ The text here has 僧徒, not 僧 alone. I often found in monasteries boys and lads who looked up to certain of the monks as their preceptors.

⁵ Compare what is said in chapter ii of the dress of the people of Shen shen.

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As you go forward from these mountains, the plants, trees and fruits are all different from those of the land of Han, excepting only the bamboo, pomegranate¹, and sugar cane

CHAPTER VI

ON TOWARDS NORTH INDIA DARADA IMAGE OF MAITREYA
BODHISATTVA

FROM this (the travellers) went westwards towards North India and after being on the way for a month they succeeded in getting across and through the range of the Onion mountains. The snow rests on them both winter and summer. There are also among them venomous dragons, which, when provoked, spit forth poisonous winds and cause showers of snow and storms of sand and gravel. Not one in ten thousand of those who encounter these dangers escapes with his life. The people of the country call the range by the name of 'The Snow mountains.' When (the travellers) had got through them they were in North India, and immediately on entering its borders, found themselves in a small kingdom called T'o-leih², where also there were many monks, all students of the Hinayāna.

In this kingdom there was formerly an Arhan³, who by his supernatural

¹ Giles thinks the fruit here was the guava because the ordinary name for pomegranate is preceded by gan (甘), but the pomegranate was called at first Gan Shih lāu as having been introduced into China from Gan seih by Chang Keen who is referred to in chapter vii.

² Eitel and others identify this with Darada the country of the ancient Dardae the region near Dardus lat. 30° 11' N lon 73 54 E. See E. H. P. 30 I am myself in more than doubt on the point. Cunningham (Ancient Geography of India p. 82) says Darel is a valley on the right or western bank of the Indus now occupied by Dardus or Dards from whom it received its name. But as I read our narrative Fa hien is here on the eastern bank of the Indus and only crosses to the western bank as described in the next chapter.

³ Lo han Arhat Arahat are all designations of the perfected Ārya, the disciple who has passed the different stages of the Noble Path or eightfold

power¹ took a clever artificer up to the Tushita² heaven, to see the height, complexion and appearance of Maitreya Bodhisattva³, and then return and make an image of him in wood. First and last, this was done three times and then the image was completed, eighty cubits in height, and eight cubits at the base from knee to knee of the crossed legs. On fast days it emits an effulgent light. The kings of the (surrounding) countries vie with one another in presenting offerings to it. Here it is—to be seen now as of old⁴.

excellent way, who has conquered all passions, and is not to be reborn again. Arhatship implies possession of certain supernatural powers and is not to be succeeded by Buddhahood but implies the fact of the saint having already attained nirvāṇa. Popularly, the Chinese designate by this name the wider circle of Buddhas disciples as well as the smaller ones of 500 and 18. No temple in Canton is better worth a visit than that of the 500 Lo-han.

¹ Riddhi-sākshātkriyā 'the power of supernatural footsteps, = 'a body flexible at pleasure, or unlimited power over the body. E. H., p. 104.

² Tushita is the fourth Devaloka, where all Bodhisattvas are reborn before finally appearing on earth as Buddha. Life lasts in Tushita 4000 years, but twenty-four hours there are equal to 400 years on earth. E. H., p. 152.

³ Maitreya (Spence Hardy Maitrī) often styled Ajita, 'the Invincible, was a Bodhisattva the principal one indeed of Śākyamuni's retinue, but is not counted among the ordinary (historical) disciples nor is anything told of his antecedents. It was in the Tushita heaven that Śākyamuni met him and appointed him as his successor to appear as Buddha after the lapse of 5000 years. Maitreya is therefore the expected Messiah of the Buddhists residing at present in Tushita, and, according to the account of him in Eitel (H., p. 70) 'already controlling the propagation of the Buddhist faith. The name means 'gentleness or 'kindness, and this will be the character of his dispensation.

⁴ The combination of 今故 in the text of this concluding sentence and so frequently occurring throughout the narrative has occasioned no little dispute among previous translators. In the imperial thesaurus of phraseology (P'ei wān Yun foo) under 故, an example of it is given from Chwang tsze, and a note subjoined that 今故 is equivalent to 古今 'anciently and now'.

CHAPTER VII

CROSSING OF THE INDUS WHEN BUDDHISM FIRST CROSSED THE
RIVER FOR THE EAST

THE travellers went on to the south-west for fifteen days (at the foot of the mountains, and) following the course of their range. The way was difficult and rugged, (running along) a bank exceedingly precipitous, which rose up there, a hill like wall of rock, 10,000 cubits from the base. When one approached the edge of it his eyes became unsteady, and if he wished to go forward in the same direction, there was no place on which he could place his foot, and beneath were the waters of the river called the Indus¹. In former times men had chiselled paths along the rocks, and distributed ladders on the face of them, to the number altogether of 700, at the bottom of which there was a suspension bridge of ropes by which the river was crossed, its banks being there eighty paces apart². The (place and arrangements) are to be found in the Records of the Nine Interpreters³.

¹ The Sindhu. We saw in a former note (2 p 14) that the earliest name in China for India was *Shin tuh*. So, here, the river Indus is called by a name approaching that in sound.

² Both Beal and Watters quote from Cunningham (*Ladak*, pp 88, 89) the following description of the course of the Indus in these parts in striking accordance with our author's account — From Skardo to Rongdo and from Rongdo to Makpou: *shang rong* for upwards of 100 miles the Indus sweeps sullen and dark through a mighty gorge in the mountains which for wild sublimity is perhaps unequalled. Rongdo means the country of defiles. Between these points the Indus raves from side to side of the gloomy chasm foaming and chafing with ungovernable fury. Yet even in these inaccessible places has daring and ingenious man triumphed over opposing nature. The yawning abyss is spanned by frail rope bridges and the narrow ledges of rocks are connected by ladders to form a giddy pathway overhanging the seething caldron below.

³ The Japanese edition has a different reading here from the Chinese copies — one which Rémusat (with true critical instinct) conjectured should take the place of the more difficult text with which alone he was acquainted. The Nine Interpreters⁴ would be a general name for the official interpreters

but neither Chang Keen¹ nor Kan Ying² had reached the spot.

The monks³ asked Fā hien if it could be known when the Law of Buddha first went to the east. He replied, 'When I asked the people of those countries about it, they all said that it had been handed down by their fathers from of old that, after the setting up of the image of Maitreya Bodhisattva, there were Sramans of India who crossed this river, carrying with them Sūtras and Books of Discipline. Now the image was set up rather more than 300 years after the nirvāna⁴ of Buddha, which may be referred to the reign of king P'ing of the Chow dynasty⁵. According

attached in the invading armies of Han in their attempts to penetrate and subdue the regions of the west. The phrase occurs in the memoir of Chang Keen referred to in the next note.

¹ Chang Keen, a minister of the emperor Woo of Han (B.C. 140-87) is celebrated as the first Chinese who 'pierced the void, and penetrated to 'the regions of the west' corresponding very much to the present Turkestan. Through him by B.C. 115, a regular intercourse was established between China and the thirty six kingdoms or states of that quarter—see *Mayers Chinese Reader's Manual*, p. 5. The memoir of Chang Keen translated by Mr. Wylie from the Books of the first Han dynasty, appears in the *Journal of the Anthropological Institute*, referred to already (note 3 p. 12).

² Less is known of Kan Ying than of Chang Keen. Being sent in A.D. 88 by his patron Pan Chāo on an embassy to the Roman empire, he only got as far as the Caspian sea and returned to China. He extended, however, the knowledge of his countrymen with regard to the western regions,—see the memoir of Pan Chāo in the *Books of the second Han* and *Mayers Manual*, pp. 167, 168.

³ Where and when? Probably at his first resting place after crossing the Indus.

⁴ This may refer to Śākyamuni's becoming Buddha on attaining to nirvāna, or more probably to his parī-nirvāna and death.

⁵ As king P'ing's reign lasted from B.C. 750 to 719 this would place the death of Buddha in the eleventh century B.C., whereas recent inquirers place it between B.C. 480 and 470 a year or two, or a few years after that of Confucius, so that the two great 'Masters' of the east were really contemporaries. But if Rhys Davids be correct, as I think he is in fixing the date of Buddha's death

to this account we may say that the diffusion of our great doctrines (in the east) began from (the setting up of) this image. If it had not been through that Maitreya¹, the great spiritual master² (who is to be) the successor of the Śākya, who could have caused the "Three Precious Ones"³ to be proclaimed so far, and the people of those border lands to know our Law? We know of a truth that the opening of (the way for such) a mysterious propagation is not the work of man, and so the dream of the emperor Mung of Han⁴ had its proper cause⁵.

CHAPTER VIII

WOO CHANG, OR UDYĀNA MONASTERIES, AND THEIR WAYS AND TRACES OF BUDDHA

AFTER crossing the river, (the travellers) immediately came to the kingdom of Woo chang⁶, which is indeed (a part) of North India. The people all use the language of Central India, 'Central India' being what we should call the 'Middle Kingdom'. The food and clothes of the common people are the same as in that Central Kingdom. The Law of Buddha is very (flourishing in Woo chang). They call the places where the monks stay (for a time) or reside permanently Saṅghārāmas⁷ and of these there are in all 500 the monks being all students of the

within a few years of 412 B.C. (see Manual p. 213) not to speak of Westergaard's still lower date. Then the Buddha was very considerably the junior of Confucius.

¹ This confirms the words of Etel (note 3 p. 23) that Maitreya is already controlling the propagation of the Faith.

² The Chinese characters for this simply mean 'the great scholar or officer' but see Etel's Handbook, p. 99 on the term *puruṣa*.

³ 'The precious Buddha', 'the precious Law' and 'the precious Monkhood'. Buddha, Dharma and Saṅgha the whole being equivalent to Buddhism.

⁴ Fā hien thus endorses the view that Buddhism was introduced into China in this reign A.D. 58-75. The emperor had his dream in A.D. 61.

⁵ Udyana meaning the Park just north of the Punjab the country along the Subhāvastu now called the Swat, noted for its forests, flowers and fruits (F. H. p. 153).

⁶ See note 3 p. 17.

hinayāna. When stranger bhikshus¹ arrive at one of them, their wants are supplied for three days, after which they are told to find a resting place for themselves.

There is a tradition that when Buddha came to North India, he came at once to this country, and that here he left a print of his foot, which is long or short according to the ideas of the beholder (on the subject). It exists, and the same thing is true about it, at the present day. Here also are still to be seen the rock on which he dried his clothes, and the place where he converted the wicked dragon². The rock is fourteen cubits high, and more than twenty broad, with one side of it smooth.

Hwuy king Hwuy-tah and Táo ching went on ahead towards (the place of) Buddha's shadow in the country of Nāgara³, but Fā hien and the others remained in Woo chang and kept the summer retreat⁴. That over, they descended south, and arrived in the country of Soo ho to⁵.

¹ Bhikshu is the name for a monk as 'living by alms, a mendicant. All bhikshus call themselves Śramans. Sometimes the two names are used together by our author.

² Nāga is the Sanskrit name for the Chinese lung or dragon, often meaning a snake, especially the boa. 'Chinese Buddhists' says Eitel p. 79, when speaking of nagas as boa spirits always represent them as enemies of mankind but when viewing them as deities of rivers, lakes or oceans they describe them as piously inclined. The dragon however is in China the symbol of the Sovereign and Sage a use of it unknown in Buddhism according to which all nagas need to be converted in order to obtain a higher phase of being. The use of the character too (度) as here in the sense of to convert is entirely Buddhist. The six pāramitās are the six virtues which carry men across (度) the great sea of life and death as the sphere of transmigration to nirvāna. With regard to the particular conversion here Eitel (p. 11) says the Nāga's name was Apatāla the guardian deity of the Subhāvastu river and that he was converted by Śākyamuni shortly before the death of the latter.

³ In Chinese Na keeh, an ancient kingdom and city on the southern bank of the Cabul river about thirty miles west of Jellalabad.

⁴ We would seem now to be in 403.

⁵ Soo-ho to has not been clearly identified. Beal says that later Buddhist writers include it in Udyāna. It must have been between the Indus and the Swat. I suppose it was what we now call Swatene.

Śīkṛa, Ruler of Devas, wishing to excite the idea in his mind assumed the appearance of a little herd boy, and was making a tope right in the way (of the king), who asked what sort of a thing he was making. The boy said, 'I am making a tope for Buddha.' The king said, 'Very good, and immediately, right over the boy's tope, he (proceeded to) rear another, which was more than four hundred cubits high, and adorned with layers of all the precious substances. Of all the topes and temples which (the travellers) saw in their journeyings, there was not one comparable to this in solemn beauty and majestic grandeur. There is a current saying that this is the finest tope in Jambudvīpa.' When the king's tope was completed, the little tope (of the boy) came out from its side on the south, rather more than three cubits in height.

Buddha's alms bowl is in this country. Formerly, a king of Yueh she² raised a large force and invaded this country, wishing to carry the bowl away. Having subdued the kingdom, as he and his captains were sincere believers in the Law of Buddha, and wished to carry off the bowl, they proceeded to present their offerings on a great scale. When they had done so to the Three Precious Ones he made a large elephant be grandly caparisoned, and placed the bowl upon it. But the elephant knelt down on the ground, and was unable to go forward. Again he caused a four wheeled waggon to be prepared in which the bowl was put to be conveyed away. Eight elephants were then yoked to it and dragged it with their united strength, but neither were they able to

¹ Jambudvīpa is one of the four great continents of the universe representing the inhabited world as fancied by the Buddhists, and so called because it resembles in shape the leaves of the jambu tree. It is south of mount Meru and divided among four fabulous kings (E. H. p. 36). It is often used as here perhaps, merely as the Buddhist name for India.

² This king was perhaps Kanishka himself, Fā hien mixing up in an inartistic way different legends about him. Eitel suggests that a relic of the old name of the country may still exist in that of the Jats or Juts of the present day. A more common name for it is Tukhāra and he observes that the people were the Indo-Scythians of the Greeks and the Tartars of Chinese writers who driven on by the Huns (180 B.C.) conquered Transoxiana, destroyed the Bactrian kingdom (126 B.C.) and finally conquered the Punjab, Cashmere and great part of India, their greatest king being Kanishka (E. H., p. 152).

go forward. The king knew that the time for an association between himself and the bowl had not yet arrived¹, and was sad and deeply ashamed of himself. Forthwith he built a tope at the place and a monastery, and left a guard to watch (the bowl), making all sorts of contributions.

There may be there more than seven hundred monks. When it is near midday, they bring out the bowl, and along with the common people², make their various offerings to it, after which they take their midday meal. In the evening, at the time of incense they bring the bowl out again³. It may contain rather more than two pecks and is of various colours, black predominating with the seams that show its fourfold composition distinctly marked⁴. Its thickness is about the fifth of an inch, and it has a bright and glossy lustre. When poor people throw into it a few flowers, it becomes immediately full while some very rich people, wishing to make offering of many flowers might not stop till they had thrown in hundreds, thousands and myriads of bushels, and yet would not be able to fill it⁵.

¹ Watters clearly understanding the thought of the author in this sentence, renders— his destiny did not extend to a connexion with the bowl, but the term destiny suggests a controlling or directing power without. The king thought that his virtue in the past was not yet sufficient to give him possession of the bowl.

² The text is simply those in white clothes. This may mean 'the laity, or the upāsakas, but it is better to take the characters in their common Chinese acceptation, as meaning commoners 'men who have no rank'. See in Williams Dictionary under 白.

³ I do not wonder that Rémusat should give for this—'et sen retourment après. But Fa hien's use of 同 in the sense of 'in the same way' is uniform throughout the narrative.

⁴ Hardy's M B p 183, says —'The alms bowl given by Mahābrahma having vanished (about the time that Gotama became Buddha) each of the four guardian deities brought him an alms bowl of emerald but he did not accept them. They then brought four bowls made of stone of the colour of the mung fruit, and when each entreated that his own bowl might be accepted Buddha caused them to appear as if formed into a single bowl appearing at the upper rim as if placed one within the other. See the account more correctly given in the Buddhist Birth Stories p 110.

⁵ Compare the narrative in Luke's Gospel, xxi 1-4

THE TRAVELS OF FÂ HIEN

audience on the business of his government. The chiefs of the Vaisyas¹ also make their offerings before they attend to their family affairs. Every day it is so and there is no remissness in the observance of the custom. When all the offerings are over, they replace the bone in the vihâra where there is a vimoksha tope², of the seven precious substances and rather more than five cubits high sometimes open some times shut, to contain it. In front of the door of the vihâra, there are parties who every morning sell flowers and incense³, and those who wish to make offerings buy some of all kinds. The kings of various countries are also constantly sending messengers with offerings. The vihâra stands in a square of thirty paces and though heaven should shake and earth be rent, this place would not move.

Going on, north from this, for a yojana (Fâ hien) arrived at the capital of Nagâra, the place where the Bodhisattva once purchased with money five stalks of flowers, as an offering to the Dipânkara Buddha⁴. In the midst of the city there is also the tope of Buddha's tooth where offerings are made in the same way as to the flat bone of his skull. A yojana to the north east of the city brought him to the mouth of a valley, where there is Buddha's pewter staff⁵, and a vihâra also has

¹ The Vaisyas or bourgeois caste of Hindu society are described here as resident scholars.

² See Eitel's Handbook under the name vimoksha which is explained as the act of self liberation and the dwelling or state of liberty. There are eight acts of liberating one's self from all subjective and objective trammels and as many states of liberty (vimukti) resulting therefrom. They are eight degrees of self annihilation and apparently eight stages on the way to nirvâna. The tope in the text would be emblematic in some way of the general idea of the mental progress conducting to the Buddhist consummation of existence.

³ This incense would be in long sticks small and large such as are sold to-day throughout China as you enter the temples.

⁴ The illuminating Buddha the twenty fourth predecessor of Śākyamuni and who, so long before gave him the assurance that he would by-and-by be Buddha. See Jâtaka Tales p. 23.

⁵ The staff was as immediately appears, of Gośrisha Chandana or sandal wood from the Cow's head mountain a species of copper brown sandal.

been built at which offerings are made. The staff is made of Gośirsha Chandana, and is quite sixteen or seventeen cubits long. It is contained in a wooden tube, and though a hundred or a thousand men were to (try to) lift it, they could not move it.

Entering the mouth of the valley, and going west, he found Buddha's Sanghāli¹, where also there is reared a vihāra, and offerings are made. It is a custom of the country when there is a great drought, for the people to collect in crowds, bring out the robe, pay worship to it, and make offerings, on which there is immediately a great rain from the sky.

South of the city, half a yojana there is a rock cavern in a great hill fronting the south west, and here it was that Buddha left his shadow. Looking at it from a distance of more than ten paces you seem to see Buddha's real form, with his complexion of gold and his characteristic marks² in their nicety clearly and brightly displayed. The nearer you approach, however the fainter it becomes, as if it were only in your fancy. When the kings from the regions all around have sent skilful artists to take a copy, none of them have been able to do so. Among the people of the country there is a saying current that 'the thousand Buddhas³ must all leave their shadows here'.

Rather more than four hundred paces west from the shadow, when Buddha was at the spot, he shaved off his hair and clipped his nails, and proceeded along with his disciples, to build a tope seventy or eighty

wood said to be produced most abundantly on a mountain of (the fabulous continent) Ullarakuru north of mount Meru which resembles in shape the head of a cow (E. H. pp 42-43). It is called a pewter staff from having on it a head and rings of pewter. See Watters, *China Review*, viii pp 227-228, and Williams' Dictionary, under 杖.

¹ Or Sanghati the double or composite robe part of a monk's attire reaching from the shoulders to the knees and fastened round the waist (E. H., p 118).

² These were the 'marks and beauties' on the person of a supreme Buddha. The rishi Kalā Devala saw them on the body of the infant Śākya prince to the number of 328, those on the teeth which had not yet come out, being visible to his spirit like eyes (M. B. pp 148, 149).

³ Probably = 'all Buddhas'.

cubits high, to be a model for all future topes, and it is still existing. By the side of it there is a monastery, with more than seven hundred monks in it. At this place there are as many as a thousand topes¹ of Arhans and Pratyeka Buddhas².

CHAPTER XIV

DEATH OF HWUY KING IN THE LITTLE SNOWY MOUNTAINS LO-2 FOHNĀ CROSSING THE INDUS TO THE EAST

HAVING stayed there till the third month of winter Fā hien and the two others³, proceeding southwards, crossed the Little Snowy mountains⁴. On them the snow lies accumulated both winter and summer. On the north (side) of the mountains, in the shade, they suddenly encountered a cold wind which made them shiver and become unable to speak. Hwuy king could not go any farther. A white froth came from his mouth

¹ The number may appear too great. But see what is said on the site of topes in note 1, page 17.

² In Singhalese Paśś Buddhas, called also Nidāna Buddhas and Pratyeka Jinas and explained by 'individually intelligent, completely intelligent, intelligent as regards the nidānas'. This, says Etel (pp 96-97), is a degree of saintship unknown to primitive Buddhism denoting automata in ascetic life who attain to Buddhahood 'individually' that is, without a teacher and without being able to save others. As the ideal hermit, the Pratyeka Buddha is compared with the rhinoceros khadga that lives lonely in the wilderness. He is also called Nidāna Buddha, as having mastered the twelve nidānas (the twelve links in the everlasting chain of cause and effect in the whole range of existence, the understanding of which solves the riddle of life, revealing the vanity of all forms of existence, and preparing the mind for nirvāna). He is also compared to a horse, which crossing a river almost buries its body under the water without, however, touching the bottom of the river. Thus in crossing saṃsāra he 'suppresses the errors of life and thought and the effects of habit and passion without attaining to absolute perfection'. Whether these Buddhas were unknown as Etel says to primitive Buddhism may be doubted. See Davids' Hibbert Lectures p 146.

³ These must have been Tāo chung and Hwuy king.

⁴ Probably the Safed Koh, and on the way to the Kohat pass.

and he said to Fā hien, 'I cannot live any longer Do you immediately go away, that we do not all die here, and with these words he died¹ Fa hien stroked the corpse and cried out piteously, Our original plan has failed—it is fate² What can we do? He then again exerted himself and they succeeded in crossing to the south of the range and arrived in the kingdom of Lo e³ where there were nearly three thousand monks students of both the mahayāna and hinayana Here they stayed for the summer retreat⁴, and when that was over, they went on to the south, and ten days journey brought them to the kingdom of Poh na⁵, where there are also more than three thousand monks all students of the hinayāna Proceeding from this place for three days they again crossed the Indus where the country on each side was low and level⁶

CHAPTER XV

BHIDA SYMPATHY OF MONKS WITH THE PILGRIMS

AFTER they had crossed the river, there was a country named Pe too⁷, where Buddhism was very flourishing and (the monks) studied both the mahāyāna and hinayāna When they saw their fellow-disciples from Ts in passing along they were moved with great pity and sympathy and expressed themselves thus 'How is it that these men

¹ All the texts have Hwuy ling See note . page 36

² A very natural exclamation but out of place and inconsistent from the lips of Fa hien The Chinese character 命 which he employed may be rendered rightly by 'fate or destiny, but the fate is not unintelligent The term implies a factor or fa tor and supposes the ordination of Heaven or God A Confucian idea for the moment overcame his Buddhism.

³ Lo-e, or Rohi is a name for Afghanistan but only a portion of it can be here intended

⁴ We are now therefore in 404

⁵ No doubt the present district of Bannu in the Lieutenant Governorship of the Punjab between 32 10 and 33 15 N lat., and 70° 16 and 72° E lon See Hunter's Gazetteer of India i p 393

⁶ They had then crossed the Indus before They had done so indeed twice first from north to south at Skardo or east of it and second as described in chap vii

⁷ Bhida. Eitel says The present Punjab i.e it was a portion of that

from a border-land should have learned to become monks¹, and come for the sake of our doctrines from such a distance in search of the Law of Buddha². They supplied them with what they needed, and treated them in accordance with the rules of the Law.

CHAPTER XVI

ON TO MATHURÂ OR MUTHRA. CONDITION AND CUSTOMS OF CENTRAL INDIA, OF THE MONKS, VIHÂRAS, AND MONASTERIES

FROM this place they travelled south east, passing by a succession of very many monasteries, with a multitude of monks, who might be counted by myriads. After passing all these places, they came to a country named Ma t'âou lo³. They still followed the course of the Poo na⁴ river, on the banks of which left and right, there were twenty monasteries, which might contain three thousand monks, and (here) the Law of Buddha was still more flourishing. Everywhere, from the Sandy Desert, in all the countries of India the kings had been firm believers in that Law. When they make their offerings to a community of monks they take off their royal caps, and along with their relatives and ministers supply them with food with their own hands. That done, (the king) has a carpet spread for himself on the ground, and sits down on it in front of the chairman,—they dare not presume to sit on couches in front of the community. The laws and ways, according to which the kings presented their offerings when Buddha was in the world, have been handed down to the present day.

All south from this is named the Middle Kingdom⁵. In it the cold and heat are finely tempered and there is neither hoarfrost nor snow. The people are numerous and happy: they have not to register their households or attend to any magistrates and their rules: only those who

¹ To come forth from their families: that is to become celibates and adopt the tonsure.

² Muthra, the peacock city. lat. 27° 30' N. lon. 77° 43' E. (Hunter), the birth place of Krishna, whose emblem is the peacock.

³ This must be the Jumna or Yamunâ. Why it is called as here the Poo-na has yet to be explained.

⁴ In Pâli, Majjhima nesa 'the Middle Country'. See Davids' Buddhist Birth Stories page 61 note.

cultivate the royal land have to pay (a portion of) the gain from it. If they want to go, they go, if they want to stay on, they stay. The king governs without decapitation or (other) corporal punishments. Criminals are simply fined lightly or heavily according to the circumstances (of each case). Even in cases of repeated attempts at wicked rebellion, they only have their right hands cut off. The king's body-guards and attendants all have salaries. Throughout the whole country the people do not kill any living creature, nor drink intoxicating liquor, nor eat onions or garlic. The only exception is that of the Chandālas¹. That is the name for those who are (held to be) wicked men and live apart from others. When they enter the gate of a city or a market place, they strike a piece of wood to make themselves known, so that men know and avoid them, and do not come into contact with them. In that country they do not keep pigs and fowls, and do not sell live cattle, in the markets there are no butchers' shops and no dealers in intoxicating drink. In buying and selling commodities they use cowries². Only the Chandālas are fishermen and hunters and sell flesh meat.

After Buddha attained to parī-nirvāṇa³ the kings of the various countries and the heads of the Vaiśyas⁴ built viḥāras for the priests, and endowed them with fields houses gardens and orchards along with the resident populations and their cattle, the grants being engraved on plates of metal⁵, so that afterwards they were handed down from king to king without any one daring to annul them, and they remain even to the present time.

¹ Etel (pp 145-6) says. The name Chandālas is explained by 'butchers' wicked men, and those who carry the awful flag to warn off their betters — the lowest and most despised caste of India members of which however when converted were admitted even into the ranks of the priesthood.

² Cowries, 貝齒 not 'shells and ivory' as one might suppose but cowries alone the second term entering into the name from the marks inside the edge of the shell, resembling the teeth of fishes.

³ See note 3 page 33. Buddha's parī nirvāṇa is equivalent to Buddha's death.

⁴ See note 1, page 38. The order of the characters is different here but with the same meaning.

⁵ See the preparation of such a deed of grant in a special case as related in chap xxxix. No doubt in Fā hien's time and long before and after it, it was the custom to engrave such deeds on plates of metal.

The regular business of the monks is to perform acts of meritorious virtue and to recite their Sûtras and sit wrapt in meditation. When stranger monks arrive (at any monastery) the old residents meet and receive them carry for them their clothes and alms bowl, give them water to wash their feet oil with which to anoint them, and the liquid food permitted out of the regular hours¹. When (the stranger) has enjoyed a very brief rest they further ask the number of years that he has been a monk after which he receives a sleeping apartment with its appurtenances according to his regular order and everything is done for him which the rules prescribe².

Where a community of monks resides they erect topes to Śāriputra³, to Mitrā maudgalyāyana⁴, and to Ananda⁵, and also topes (in honour) of

¹ No monk can eat solid food except between sunrise and noon and total abstinence from intoxicating drinks is obligatory (Davids Manual p 163). Food eaten at any other part of the day is called *vikāla* and forbidden but a weary traveller might receive unseasonable refreshment, consisting as Watters has shown (Ch Rev viii 282) of honey butter, treacle and sesamum oil.

² The expression here is somewhat perplexing but it occurs again in chap xxxviii and the meaning is clear. See Watters, Ch Rev viii 282 3. The rules are given at length in the Sacred Books of the East vol xx, p 72 and foll and p 279 and foll.

³ Śāriputra (Singh Senjūt) was one of the principal disciples of Buddha, and indeed the most learned and ingenious of them all so that he obtained the title of 智慧 knowledge and wisdom. He is also called Buddha's 'right hand attendant'. His name is derived from that of his mother Śārika, the wife of Tishya a native of Nalanda. In Spence Hardy he often appears under the name of Upatissa (Upa tishya) derived from his father. Several Sastras are ascribed to him and indeed the followers of the Abhidharma look on him as their founder. He died before Śākyamuni but is to reappear as a future Buddha. Etel pp 1 3 124.

⁴ Mūgalaṇ the Singhalese name of this disciple is more pronounceable. He also was one of the principal disciples called Buddha's left hand attendant. He was distinguished for his power of vision and his magic powers. The name in the text is derived from the former attribute and it was by the latter that he took up an artist to Tushita to get a view of Śākyamuni and so make a statue of him (Compare the similar story in chap vi.) He went to hell and released his mother. He also died before Śākyamuni, and is to reappear as Buddha. Etel p 65.

⁵ See note 2 page 33.

the Abhidharma¹, the Vinaya¹ and the Sūtras¹ A month after the (annual season of) rest, the families which are looking out for blessing stimulate one another² to make offerings to the monks and send round to them the liquid food which may be taken out of the ordinary hours All the monks come together in a great assembly and preach the Law³, after which offerings are presented at the tope of Sariputta with all kinds of flowers and incense All through the night lamps are kept burning and skilful musicians are employed to perform⁴

When Sāriputta was a great Brahman, he went to Buddha and begged (to be permitted) to quit his family (and become a monk) The great Mugalan and the great Kāśyapa⁵ also did the same The bhikshunis⁶ for the most part make their offerings at the tope of Ānanda, because it was he who requested the World honoured one to allow females to quit their families (and become nuns) The Śrāmaneras⁷ mostly

¹ The different parts of the tripitaka. See note 2 page 10

² A passage rather difficult to construe The families would be those more devout than their neighbours

³ One rarely hears this preaching in China. It struck me most as I once heard it at Ōsaka in Japan There was a pulpit in a large hall of the temple and the audience sat around on the matted floor One priest took the pulpit after another, and the bearers nodded their heads occasionally and indicated their sympathy with a sentiment now and then by an audible 'hm' which reminded me of Carlyle's description of meetings of The Ironsides of Cromwell.

⁴ This last statement is wanting in the Chinese editions.

⁵ There was a Kāśyapa Buddha, anterior to Śakyamuni But this Mahākāśyapa was a Brahman of Magadha who was converted by Buddha and became one of his disciples. He took the lead after Śakyamuni's death, convoked and directed the first synod, from which his title of Ārya-sthavira is derived As the first compiler of the Canon he is considered the fountain of Chinese orthodoxy and counted as the first patriarch. He also is to be reborn as a Buddha. Eitel, p 64

⁶ The bhikshunis are the female monks or nuns subject to the same rules as the bhikshus, and also to special ordinances of restraint. See Hardy's E M chap 17 See also Sacred Books of the East, vol xx p 321

⁷ The Śrāmaneras are the novices, male or female.

make their offerings to Rāhula¹. The professors of the Abhidharma² make their offerings to it, those of the Vinaya³ to it. Every year there is one such offering and each class has its own day for it. Students of the mahāyāna present offerings to the Prajñā pāramitā⁴, to Mañjuśrī⁵, and to Kwan she yin⁶. When the monks have done receiving their

observe the Shikshāpada, or ten commandments. Fā hien was himself one of them from his childhood. Having heard the Trisharana or threefold formula of Refuge,—I take refuge in Buddha, the Law, the Church—the novice undertakes to observe the ten precepts that forbid—(1) destroying life, (2) stealing, (3) impurity, (4) lying, (5) intoxicating drinks, (6) eating after midday, (7) dancing singing, music and stage plays (8) garlands scents, unguents, and ornaments, (9) high or broad couches (10) receiving gold or silver. *David's Manual* p 160 *Hardy's E.M.* pp 23 24

¹ The eldest son of Śākyamuni by Yaśodharā. Converted to Buddhism he followed his father as an attendant, and after Buddha's death became the founder of a philosophical realistic school (vaibhāshika). He is now revered as the patron saint of all novices, and is to be reborn as the eldest son of every future Buddha. *Etel* p 101. His mother also is to be reborn as Buddha.

² Note 1, page 45

³ There are six (sometimes increased to ten) pāramitās 'means of passing to nirvāna'—Charity, morality, patience, energy, tranquil contemplation, wisdom (prajñā), made up to ten by use of the proper means, science, pious vows, and force of purpose. But it is only prajñā which carries men across the saṃsāra in the shores of nirvāna. *Etel* p 90

⁴ According to *Etel* (pp 71 72) A famous Bodhisattva now specially worshipped in Shan se whose antecedents are a hopeless jumble of history and fable. Fa hien found him here worshipped by followers of the mahāyāna school, but Hsüan chwang connects his worship with the yogachara or tantra magic school. The mahāyāna school regard him as the apotheosis of perfect wisdom. His most common titles are Mahāmaṃsī Great wisdom and Kumāra rāja king of teaching, with a thousand arm and a hundred alms bowls.

⁵ Kwan she yin and the dogmas about him or her are as great a mystery as Mañjuśrī. The Chinese name is a mistranslation of the Sanskrit name Avalokiteśvara. On looking Sovereign, or even 'On looking Self-Exister', and means Regarding or Looking on the sounds of the world, = Hearer of Prayer. Originally, and still in Tibet Avalokiteśvara had only male attributes

annual tribute (from the harvests)¹, the Heads of the Vaiśyas and all the Brahmans bring clothes and such other articles as the monks require for use and distribute among them. The monks, having received them also proceed to give portions to one another. From the nirvāna of Buddha² the forms of ceremony, laws and rules, practised by the sacred communities, have been handed down from one generation to another without interruption.

From the place where (the travellers) crossed the Indus to South India, and on to the Southern Sea, a distance of forty or fifty thousand le, all is level plain. There are no large hills with streams (among them), there are simply the waters of the rivers.

CHAPTER XVII

SAṆKĀŚYA BUDDHA'S ASCENT TO AND DESCENT FROM THE TRAYAŚTRIMŚAS HEAVEN, AND OTHER LEGENDS

FROM this they proceeded south east for eighteen yojanas, and found themselves in a kingdom called Sankāśya³, at the place where Buddha came

but in China and Japan (Kwannon), this deity (such popularly she is) is represented as a woman, Kwan yin, the greatly gentle with a thousand arms and a thousand eyes, and has her principal seat in the island of Poo too on the China coast, which is a regular place of pilgrimage. To the worshippers of whom Fā hien speaks Kwan she yin would only be Avalokiteśvara. How he was converted into the 'goddess of mercy' and her worship took the place which it now has in China is a difficult inquiry which would take much time and space and not be brought after all so far as I see, to a satisfactory conclusion. See Eitel's Handbook, pp 18-20 and his Three Lectures on Buddhism (third edition) pp 124-131. I was talking on the subject once with an intelligent Chinese gentleman when he remarked, 'Have you not much the same thing in Europe in the worship of Mary?'

¹ Compare what is said in chap v

² This nirvāna of Buddha must be—not his death, but his attaining to Buddhahip

³ The name is still remaining in Samkassam a village forty five miles north west of Canouge lat. 27° 3' N, lon 79 50 E.

THE TRAVELS OF FA HIFEN

down after ascending to the Trayastriṃśas heaven¹, and there preaching for three months his Law for the benefit of his mother². Buddha had gone up to this heaven by his supernatural power³, without letting his disciples know but seven days before the completion (of the three months) he laid aside his invisibility⁴, and Anuruddha⁵, with his heavenly eyes⁶ saw the World honoured ore and immediately said to the honoured one, the great Mughalaṇ Do you go and salute the World honoured one, the forthwith went and with herd and face did homage at (Buddha's) feet. They then saluted and questioned each other and when this was over, Buddha said to Mughalaṇ 'Seven days after this I will go down to Jambudvīpa⁷ and thereupon Mughalaṇ returned. At this time the great kings of eight countries with their ministers and people not having seen Buddha for a long time were all thirstily looking up for him and had collected in clouds in this kingdom to wait for the World honoured one

¹ The heaven of Indra or Śākya meaning the heaven of thirty three classes a name which has been explained both historically and mythologically. The description of it, says Etel p 148 tallies in all respects with the Svarga of Brahmanic mythology. It is situated between the four peaks of the Meru and consists of thirty two cities of devas eight on each of the four corners of the mountain. Indra's capital of Bellevue is in the centre. There he is enthroned with a thousand heads and a thousand eyes and four arms grasping the vaira with his wife and 119 000 concubines. There he receives the monthly reports of the four Mahārājas concerning the progress of good and evil in the world &c &c.

² Buddha's mother Māyā and Mahāmāyā the mater immaculata of the Buddhists died seven days after his birth. Etel says Reoorn in Tushita she was visited there by her son and converted. The Tushita heaven was a more likely place to find her than the Trayastriṃśas but was the former a part of the latter? Hardy gives a long account of Buddha's visit to the Trayastriṃśas (M B pp 298-302) which he calls Tawutisā and speaks of his mother (Mātrū) in 11 who had now become a deva by the changing of her sex.

³ Compare the account of the Arhat's conveyance of the artist to the Tushita heaven in chap v. The first expression here is more comprehensive.

⁴ Anuruddha was a first cousin of Śākyaṃ being the son of his uncle Amritodana. He is often mentioned in the account we have of Buddha's last moments. His special gift was the divyachakshus or heavenly eye the first of the six abhijñās or supernatural talents the faculty of comprehending in one

Then the bhikṣuṇī Utpalā¹ thought in her heart, 'To day the kings, with their ministers and people, will all be meeting (and welcoming) Buddha I am (but) a woman, how shall I succeed in being the first to see him??' Buddha immediately, by his spirit like power changed her into the appearance of a holy Chakravartī² king and she was the foremost of all in doing reverence to him

As Buddha descended from his position aloft in the Trayāstrimsas heaven, when he was coming down, there were made to appear three flights of precious steps. Buddha was on the middle flight, the steps of which were composed of the seven precious substances. The king of Brahma loka⁴ also made a flight of silver steps appear on the right side, (where he was seen) attending with a white chowry in his hand Śakra,

instantaneous view, or by intuition all beings in all worlds. He could see says Hardy M B p 232 'all things in 100 000 sakvalas as plainly as a mustard seed held in the hand

¹ Etel gives the name Utpalā with the same Chinese phonensation as in the text but not as the name of any bhikṣuṇī. The Sanskrit word however, is explained by blue lotus flowers, and Hsian chwang calls her the nun Lotus flower colour (蓮花色), —the same as Hardy's Upulwan and Uppalawarnā

² Perhaps we should read here to see Buddha and then ascribe the transformation to the nun herself. It depends on the punctuation which view we adopt and in the structure of the passage there is nothing to indicate that the stop should be made before or after Buddha. And the one view is as reasonable or rather as unreasonable as the other

³ A holy king who turns the wheel, that is the military conqueror and monarch of the whole or part of a universe. 'The symbol' says Etel (p 142) 'of such a king is the chakra or wheel for when he ascends the throne a chakra falls from heaven, indicating by its material (gold silver, copper or iron) the extent and character of his reign. The office however, of the highest Chakravartī who hurls his wheel among his enemies, is inferior to the peaceful mission of a Buddha who meekly turns the wheel of the Law and conquers every universe by his teaching'

⁴ This was Brahma, the first person of the Brahmanical Trimurti, adopted by Buddhism, but placed in an inferior position, and surpassed by every Buddhist saint who attains to bodhi

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Ruler of Devas¹, made (a flight of) steps of purple gold on the left side (where he was seen) attending and holding an umbrella of the seven precious substances. An innumerable multitude of the devas² followed Buddha in his descent. When he was come down, the three flights all disappeared in the ground, excepting seven steps which continued to be visible. Afterwards king Aśoka wishing to know where their ends rested, sent men to dig and see. They went down to the yellow springs³ without reaching the bottom of the steps, and from this the king received an increase to his reverence and faith, and built a viḥāra over the steps with a standing image sixteen cubits in height, right over the middle flight. Behind the viḥāra he erected a stone pillar about fifty cubits high⁴, with a lion on the top of it⁵. Let into the pillar on each of its four sides⁶, there is an image of Buddha inside and out⁷ shining and transparent, and pure as it were of lapis lazuli. Some teachers of another doctrine⁸ once disputed with the Śramanas about (the right to) this as a place of residence, and the latter were having the worst of

¹ See note 2 p 30

² See note 3 p 19

³ A common name for the earth below where on digging water is found

⁴ The height is given as thirty chow, the chow being the distance from the elbow to the finger tip which is variously estimated

⁵ A note of Mr Beal says on this — General Cunningham who visited the spot (1862) found a pillar evidently of the age of Aśoka with a well-carved elephant on the top which however was minus trunk and tail. He supposes this to be the pillar seen by Fa hien who mistook the top of it for a lion. It is possible such a mistake may have been made as in the account of one of the pillars at Śrāvastī Fa hien says an ox formed the capital whilst Hsüan chwang calls it an elephant (p 19 Arch Survey)

⁶ That is in inches on the sides. The pillar or column must have been square

⁷ Equivalent to all through

⁸ Has always been translated 'heretical teachers' but I eschew the terms heresy and heretical. The parties would not be Buddhists of any creed or school but Brahmins or of some other false doctrine as Fa hien deemed it. The Chinese term means outside or 'foreign', — in Pāli, añña ttihiyā = those belonging to another school

the argument, when they took an oath on both sides on the condition that, if the place did indeed belong to the Śramanas, there should be some marvellous attestation of it. When these words had been spoken, the lion on the top gave a great roar, thus giving the proof, on which their opponents were frightened, bowed to the decision and withdrew.

Through Buddha having for three months partaken of the food of heaven, his body emitted a heavenly fragrance, unlike that of an ordinary man. He went immediately and bathed, and afterwards at the spot where he did so, a bathing-house was built, which is still existing. At the place where the bhikṣuṃ Utpala was the first to do reverence to Buddha, a tope has now been built.

At the places where Buddha, when he was in the world, cut his hair and nails¹, topes are erected, and where the three Buddhas² that preceded Śākyamuni Buddha and he himself sat where they walked³, and where images of their persons were made. At all these places topes were made, and are still existing. At the place where Sakra, Ruler of the Devas and the king of the Brahma loka followed Buddha down (from the Trayastriṃśas heaven) they have also raised a tope.

At this place the monks and nuns may be a thousand, who all receive

¹ See above p. 39.

² These three predecessors of Śākyamuni were the three Buddhas of the present or Mahā bhadrā kalpa of which he was the fourth and Maitreya is to be the fifth and last. They were (1) Krakuchanda (Pali Kakusanda) 'he who readily solves all doubts, a scion of the Kāśyapa family. Human life reached in his time 40 000 years and so many persons were converted by him. (2) Kanakamuni (Pali Konagamana) body radiant with the colour of pure gold, of the same family. Human life reached in his time 30 000 years and so many persons were converted by him. (3) Kāśyapa (Pali Kassapa) 'swallow of light. Human life reached in his time 20 000 years and so many persons were converted by him. See Eitel under the several names. Hardy's M. B. pp. 95-97 and Davids 'Buddhist Birth Stories' p. 51.

³ That is walked in meditation. Such places are called Chankramana (Pali, Chankama) promenades or corridors connected with a monastery made sometimes with costly stones, for the purpose of peripatetic meditation. The 'sitting' would be not because of weariness or for rest, but for meditation. E. H.

their food from the common store, and pursue their studies, some of the mahāyāna and some of the hīnayāna. Where they live, there is a white eared dragon, which acts the part of *dānapati*¹ to the community of these monks, causing abundant harvests in the country, and the enriching rains to come in season, without the occurrence of any calamities so that the monks enjoy their repose and ease. In gratitude for its kindness, they have made for it a dragon house, with a carpet for it to sit on, and appointed for it a diet of blessing, which they present for its nourishment. Every day they set apart three of their number to go to its house, and eat there. Whenever the summer retreat is ended the dragon straightway changes its form, and appears as a small snake² with white spots at the side of its ears. As soon as the monks recognise it, they fill a copper vessel with cream, into which they put the creature, and then carry it round from the one who has the highest seat (at their tables) to him who has the lowest, when it appears as if saluting them. When it has been taken round, immediately it disappears, and every year it thus comes forth once. The country is very productive, and the people are prosperous, and happy beyond comparison. When people of other countries come to it they are exceedingly attentive to them all and supply them with what they need.

Fifty yojanas north west from the monastery there is another, called 'The Great Heap'³. Great Heap was the name of a wicked demon who was converted by Buddha and men subsequently at this place reared a viihāra. When it was being made over to an Arhat by pouring water on his hands⁴, some drops fell on the ground. They are still on

¹ See note 2 p. 11

² The character in my Korean copy is 蛇 which must be a mistake for the 蛇 of the Chinese editions. Otherwise, the meaning would be a small medusa.

³ The reading here seems to me a great improvement on that of the Chinese editions which means 'Fire Limit'. Buddha, it is said 本 converted this demon, which Chinese character Beal rendered at first by 本 in one of his incarnations and in his revised version he has 'himself'. The difference between Fa hien's usage of 本 and 昔 throughout his narrative is quite marked. 本 always refers to the doings of Śakyamuni. 昔, formerly, is often used of him and others in the sense of 'in a former age or birth'.

⁴ See Hardy M. B. p. 194 — As a token of the giving over of the garden,

the spot, and however they may be brushed away and removed, they continue to be visible, and cannot be made to disappear

At this place there is also a tope to Buddha where a good spirit constantly keeps (all about it) swept and watered, without any labour of man being required. A king of corrupt views once said, 'Since you are able to do this, I will lead a multitude of troops and reside there till the dirt and filth has increased and accumulated, and (see) whether you can cleanse it away or not.' The spirit thereupon raised a great wind which blew (the filth away) and made the place pure

At this place there are a hundred small topes at which a man may keep counting a whole day without being able to know (their exact number). If he be firmly bent on knowing it, he will place a man by the side of each tope. When this is done, proceeding to count the number of the men, whether they be many or few, he will not get to know (the number)¹

There is a monastery, containing perhaps 600 or 700 monks, in which there is a place where a Pratyeka Buddha² used to take his food. The nirvāna ground (where he was burned³ after death) is as large as a carnage wheel, and while grass grows all around, on this spot there is none. The ground also where he dried his clothes produces no grass, but the impression of them where they lay on it, continues to the present day

CHAPTER XVIII

KANYAKUBJA, OR CANOUGE BUDDHA S PREACHING

FA-HIEN stayed at the Dragon vihāra till after the summer retreat⁴, and then, travelling to the south east for seven yojanas, he arrived at the

the king poured water upon the hands of Buddha, and from this time it became one of the principal residences of the sage

¹ This would seem to be absurd, but the writer evidently intended to convey the idea that there was something mysterious about the number of the topes

² See note 2 p 40

³ This seems to be the meaning. The bodies of the monks are all burned Hardy's E. M., pp 322-324

⁴ We are now probably, in 405

city of Kanyâkubja¹, lying along the Ganges². There are two monasteries in it, the inmates of which are students of the hīnayāna. At a distance from the city of six or seven le, on the west, on the northern bank of the Ganges, is a place where Buddha preached the Law to his disciples. It has been handed down that his subjects of discourse were such as 'The bitterness and vanity (of life) as impermanent and uncertain,' and that 'The body is as a bubble or foam on the water'. At this spot a tope was erected and still exists.

Having crossed the Ganges, and gone south for three yojanas, (the travellers) arrived at a village named Â le³, containing places where Buddha preached the Law, where he sat, and where he walked, at all of which topes have been built.

CHAPTER XIX

SHÂ-CHE LEGEND OF BUDDHA'S DANTA KASHTHA

GOING on from this to the south-east for three yojanas, they came to the great kingdom of Shâ che⁴. As you go out of the city of Shâ che by the southern gate, on the east of the road (is the place) where Buddha, after he had chewed his willow branch⁵, stuck it in the ground, when it

¹ Canouge, the latitude and longitude of which have been given in a previous note. The Sanskrit name means 'the city of humpbacked maidens,' with reference to the legend of the hundred daughters of king Brahma datta, who were made deformed by the curse of the rishi Mahâ vriksha, whose overtures they had refused. E. H. p. 51.

² Ganga, explained by 'Blessed water, and 'Come from heaven to earth'.

³ This village (the Chinese editions read forest) has hardly been clearly identified.

⁴ Shâ che should probably be Shâ khe making Cunningham's identification of the name with the present Saket still more likely. The change of 𑖦𑖪 into 𑖦𑖪 is slight and, indeed, the Khang hsi dictionary thinks the two characters should be but one and the same.

⁵ This was no doubt, what was called the danta kâshṭha, or 'dental wood,' mostly a bit of the ficus Indicus or banyan tree which the monk chews every morning to cleanse his teeth and for the purpose of health generally. The

forthwith grew up seven cubits, (at which height it remained) neither increasing nor diminishing. The Brahmins with their contrary doctrines¹ became angry and jealous. Sometimes they cut the tree down sometimes they plucked it up and cast it to a distance but it grew again on the same spot as at first. Here also is the place where the four Buddhas walked and sat, and at which a tope was built that is still existing.

CHAPTER XX

KOŚALA AND ŚRÂVASTĪ THE JETAVANA VIHÂRA AND OTHER MEMORIALS AND LEGENDS OF BUDDHA SYMPATHY OF THE MONKS WITH THE PILGRIMS

GOING on from this to the south for eight yojanas (the travellers) came to the city of Śrâvasti² in the kingdom of Kośala³ in which the inhabitants were few and far between amounting in all (only) to a few more than two hundred families, the city where king Prasenajit⁴ ruled, and the place of the old vihâra of Mahâ prajâpati⁵, of the well and walls of

Chinese not having the banyan have used or at least Fa hien used, Yang (楊 the general name for the willow) instead of it.

¹ Are two classes of opponents or only one intended here, so that we should read all the unbelievers and Brahmins or heretics and Brahmins? I think the Brahmins were also the unbelievers and 'heretics' having 外道, views and ways outside of and opposed to, Buddhas.

² In Singhalese Sewet here evidently the capital of Kośala. It is placed by Cunningham (Archæological Survey) on the south bank of the Rapti about fifty-eight miles north of Ayodhya or Oude. There are still the ruins of a great town the name being Sabet Mahat. It was in this town or in its neighbourhood that Śakyamuni spent many years of his life after he became Buddha.

³ There were two Indian kingdoms of this name a southern and northern. This was the northern a part of the present Oudh.

⁴ In Singhalese Pase nadi meaning 'leader of the victorious army'. He was one of the earliest converts and chief patrons of Śakyamuni. Etel calls him (p. 95) one of the originators of Buddhist idolatry, because of the statue which is mentioned in this chapter. See Hardy's M. B. pp. 283, 284 et al.

⁵ Explained by 'Path of Love, and 'Lord of Life'. Prajâpati was aunt and

(the house of) the (Vaiśya) head Sudatta¹, and where the Aṅgulimālya² became an Arhat, and his body was (afterwards) burned on his attaining
 ὁ πατριάρχης At all these places topes were subsequently erected, which are still existing in the city. The Brahmans, with their contrary doctrine, became full of hatred and envy in their hearts and wished to destroy them, but there came from the heavens such a storm of crashing thunder and flashing lightning that they were not able in the end to effect their purpose.

As you go out from the city by the south gate, and 1,200 paces from it, the (Vaiśya) head Sudatta built a viḥāra, facing the south, and when the door was open on each side of it there was a stone pillar, with the figure of a wheel on the top of that on the left and the figure of an ox on the top of that on the right. On the left and right of the building the ponds of water clear and pure, the thickets of trees always luxuriant and the numerous flowers of various hues, constituted a lovely scene, the whole forming what is called the Jetavana viḥāra³.

When Buddha went up to the Trayastriṃśas heaven⁴ and preached the Law for the benefit of his mother⁵, (after he had been absent for)

nurse of Śākyamuni, the first woman admitted to the monkhood, and the first superior of the first Buddhist convent. She is yet to become a Buddha.

¹ Sudatta meaning 'almsgiver' was the original name of Anātha piṇḍika (or Pindada) a wealthy householder or Vaiśya head, of Śrāvastī famous for his liberality (Hardy, Anepiḍu). Of his old house only the well and walls remained at the time of Fā hien's visit to Śrāvastī.

² The Aṅgulimālya were a sect or set of Sivaite fanatics, who made assassination a religious act. The one of them here mentioned had joined them by the force of circumstances. Being converted by Buddha he became a monk but when it is said in the text that he 'got the Tao' or doctrine I think that expression implies more than his conversion and is equivalent to his becoming an Arhat. His name in Pali is Aṅgulimāla. That he did become an Arhat is clear from his autobiographical poem in the Songs of the Theras.

³ Etel (p. 37) says — 'A noted viḥāra in the suburbs of Śrāvastī erected in a park which Anātha piṇḍika bought of prince Jeta, the son of Prasenajit. Śākyamuni made this place his favourite residence for many years. Most of the *—ūtras* (authentic and supposititious) date from this spot.'

See chapter xvii

ninety days Prasenajit longing to see him, caused an image of him to be carved in Gośrsha Chandana wood¹, and put in the place where he usually sat. When Buddha on his return entered the vihāra, this image immediately left its place, and came forth to meet him. Buddha said to it, 'Return to your seat. After I have attained to pari nirvāna you will serve as a pattern to the four classes of my disciples'; and on this the image returned to its seat. This was the very first of all the images (of Buddha), and that which men subsequently copied. Buddha then removed, and dwelt in a small vihāra on the south side (of the other) a different place from that containing the image, and twenty paces distant from it.

The Jetavana vihāra was originally of seven storeys. The kings and people of the countries around vied with one another in their offerings, hanging up about it silken streamers and canopies, scattering flowers, burning incense, and lighting lamps, so as to make the night as bright as the day. This they did day after day without ceasing. (It happened that) a rat, carrying in its mouth the wick of a lamp, set one of the streamers or canopies on fire, which caught the vihāra, and the seven storeys were all consumed. The kings with their officers and people, were all very sad and distressed, supposing that the sandal wood image had been burned. But lo! after four or five days, when the door of a small vihāra on the east was opened, there was immediately seen the original image. They were all greatly rejoiced and co-operated in restoring the vihāra. When they had succeeded in completing two storeys, they removed the image back to its former place.

When Fā hien and Tāo ching first arrived at the Jetavana monastery, and thought how the World honoured one had formerly resided

¹ See chapter xiii

² Ārya meaning 'honourable' 'venerable' is a title given only to those who have mastered the four spiritual truths—(1) that misery is a necessary condition of all sentient existence, this is *dukkha* (2) that the 'accumulation of misery' is caused by the passions this is *samudaya* (3) that the 'extinction' of passion is possible this is *nirodha* and (4) that the path leads to the extinction of passion, which is *mārga*. According to their attainment of these truths the Āryas or followers of Buddha are distinguished into four classes—Śrōtāpannas, Sakṛdāgāmins, Anāgāmins, and Ārhats. E. H., p. 14

there for twenty five years, painful reflections arose in their minds. Born in a border land along with their like minded friends, they had travelled through so many kingdoms, some of those friends had returned (to their own land) and some had (died) proving the impermanence and uncertainty of life, and to day they saw the place where Buddha had lived now unoccupied by him. They were melancholy through their pain of heart, and the crowd of monks came out, and asked them from what kingdom they were come. 'We are come, they replied, 'from the land of Han.' 'Strange,' said the monks with a sigh 'that men of a border country should be able to come here in search of our Law!' Then they said to one another, 'During all the time that we, preceptors and monks¹ have succeeded to one another, we have never seen men of Han, followers of our system arrive here.'

Four le to the north west of the vihára there is a grove called 'The Getting of Eyes'. Formerly there were five hundred blind men, who lived here in order that they might be near the vihára.² Buddha

¹ This is the first time that Fâ hien employs the name Ho shang (和尚) which is now popularly used in China for all Buddhist monks without distinction of rank or office. It is the representative of the Sanskrit term Upadhyâya 'explained, says Eitel (p 155) by 'a self taught teacher or by 'he who knows what is sinful and what is not sinful with the note 'In India the vernacular of this term is 碩社 (? munshee [? Bonze]) in Kustana and Kashgar they say 鶻社 (hwa shay), and from the latter term are derived the Chinese synonyms 和闐 (ho shay) and 和尚 (ho shang). The Indian term was originally a designation for those who teach only a part of the Vedas the Vedangas. Adopted by Buddhists of Central Asia it was made to signify the priests of the older ritual in distinction from the Lamas. In China it has been used first as a synonym for 法師 monks engaged in popular teaching (teachers of the Law) in distinction from 律師 disciplinists and 禪師 contemplative philosophers (meditationists) then it was used to designate the abbots of monasteries. But it is now popularly applied to all Buddhist monks. In the text there seems to be implied some distinction between the teachers and the ho shang—probably the Pali Âtariya and Upagghâya, see Sacred Books of the East, vol xiii Vinaya Texts pp 178, 179.

² It might be added 'as depending on it, in order to bring out the full meaning of the 依 in the text. If I recollect aright the help of the police

preached his Law to them, and they all got back their eyesight. Full of joy they stuck their staves in the earth and with their heads and faces on the ground did reverence. The staves immediately began to grow, and they grew to be great. People made much of them and no one dared to cut them down so that they came to form a grove. It was in this way that it got its name and most of the Jetavana monks after they had taken their midday meal went to the grove, and sat there in meditation.

Six or seven *le* north east from the Jetavana, mother Vaiśakha¹ built another viḥāra to which she invited Buddha and his monks and which is still existing.

To each of the great residences for the monks at the Jetavana viḥāra there were two gates, one facing the east and the other facing the north. The park (containing the whole) was the space of ground which the (Vaiśya) head Sudatta purchased by covering it with gold coins. The viḥāra was exactly in the centre. Here Buddha lived for a longer time than at any other place preaching his Law and converting men. At the places where he walked and sat they also (subsequently) reared topes, each having its particular name, and here was the place where Sundari² murdered a person and then falsely charged Buddha (with the crime). Outside the east gate of the Jetavana at a distance of seventy paces to the north, on the west of the road, Buddha held a discussion

had to be called in at Honglong in its early years, to keep the approaches to the Cathedral free from the number of beggars who squatted down there during service hoping that the hearers would come out with softened hearts and disposed to be charitable. I found the popular tutelary temples in Peking and other places and the path up Mount T'ai in Shan lung similarly frequented.

¹ The wife of Anatha pindika in note 1, p 56 and who became mother superior of many nunneries. See her history in M II pp 220-227. I am surprised it does not end with the statement that she is to become a Buddha.

² See E.H., p 136. Hsüan chwang does not give the name of this murderer see in Julien's *Vie et Voyages de Hsüen tsang* p 125 — 'a heretical Brahman killed a woman and calumniated Buddha. See also the fuller account in Beal's *Records of Western Countries* pp 7-8 where the murder is committed by several Brahmachārins. In this passage Beal makes Sundari to be the name of the murdered person (a harlot). But the text cannot be so construed.

THE TRAVELS OF FA HIEN

with the (advocates of the) ninety six schemes of erroneous doctrine when the king and his great officers the householders and people were all assembled in crowds to hear it. Then a woman belonging to one of the erroneous systems by name Chañchamana¹, prompted by the envious hatred in her heart and having put on (extra) clothes in front of her person so as to give her the appearance of being with child falsely accused Buddha before all the assembly of having acted unlawfully (towards her). On this Sakra, Ruler of Devas changed himself and some devas into white mice which bit through the strings about her waist and when this was done, the (extra) clothes which she wore dropt down on the ground. The earth at the same time was rent and she went (down) alive into hell². (This) also is the place where Devadatta³, trying with empoisoned claws to injure Buddha went down alive into hell. Men subsequently set up marks to distinguish where both these events took place. Further, at the place where the discussion took place, they reared a vihāra rather more than sixty cubits high having in it an image of Buddha in a sitting posture. On the east of the road there was a devālaya⁴ of (one of) the contrary systems called 'The Shadow Covered'.

¹ Eitel (p 144) calls her Chañcha in Singhalese Chinchu. See the story about her M B pp 275-277.

² Earth's prison or one of Earth's prisons. It was the Avīchi nāraka to which she went the last of the eight hot prisons where the culprits die and are born again in uninterrupted succession (such being the meaning of Avīchi) though not without hope of final redemption. E H p 21.

³ Devadatta was brother of Ānanda and a near relative therefore of Śākyamuni. He was the deadly enemy however, of the latter. He had become so in an earlier state of existence and the hatred continued in every successive birth through which they reappeared in the world. See the accounts of him and of his various devices against Buddha and his own destruction at the last in M B pp 315-321 326-330 and still better in the Sacred Books of the East vol xx Vinaya Texts pp 233-265. For the particular attempt referred to in the text see The Life of the Buddha p 107. When he was engulfed, and the flames were around him he cried out to Buddha to save him and we are told that he is expected yet to appear as a Buddha under the name of Deva rāja, in a universe called Deva soppana. E H p 39.

⁴ A devālaya (天寺 or 天祠) a place in which a deva is worshipped.

right opposite the vihāra on the place of discussion with (only) the road between them, and also rather more than sixty cubits high. The reason why it was called 'The Shadow Covered' was this — When the sun was in the west, the shadow of the vihāra of the World honoured one fell on the devālaya of a contrary system, but when the sun was in the east, the shadow of that devālaya was diverted to the north, and never fell on the vihāra of Buddha. The mal believers regularly employed men to watch their devālaya to sweep and water (all about it), to burn incense, light the lamps and present offerings, but in the morning the lamps were found to have been suddenly removed, and in the vihāra of Buddha. The Brahmans were indignant, and said, 'Those Śramanas take our lamps and use them for their own service of Buddha, but we will not stop our service for you¹!' On that night the Brahmans themselves kept watch, when they saw the deva spirits which they served take the lamps and go three times round the vihāra of Buddha and present offerings. After this ministration to Buddha they suddenly disappeared. The Brahmans thereupon knowing how great was the spiritual power of Buddha, forthwith left their families, and became monks². It has been handed down, that, near the time when these things occurred, around the Jetavana vihāra there were ninety eight monasteries in all

—a general name for all Brahmanical temples (Eitel, p 30). We read in the *Khang hsi* dictionary under 寺 that when Kāśyapa Matanga came to the capital in the time of the emperor Ming of the second Han dynasty from the Western Regions, with his Classics or Sūtras, he was lodged in the Court of State Ceremony and that afterwards there was built for him 'The Court of the White-horse' (白馬寺) and in consequence the name of Sze (寺) came to be given to all Buddhist temples. Fa hien however, applies this term only to Brahmanical temples.

¹ Their speech was somewhat unconnected but natural enough in the circumstances. Compare the whole account with the narrative in 1 Samuel v about the Ark and Dagon, that twice battered god of Palestine.

² 'Entered the doctrine or path. Three stages in the Buddhist life are indicated by Fā hien — 'entering it' as here, by becoming monks (入道), 'getting it, by becoming Arhats (得道), and 'completing it, by becoming Buddha (成道).

of which there were monks residing, excepting only in one place which was vacant. In this Middle Kingdom¹ there are ninety six¹ sorts of views erroneous and different from our system all of which recognise this world and the future world² (and the connexion between them). Each has its multitude of followers, and they all beg their food only; they do not carry the alms bowl. They also moreover seek (to acquire) the blessing (of good deeds) on unfrequented ways, setting up on the road side houses of charity where rooms, couches, beds, and food and drink are supplied to travellers, and also to monks coming and going as guests, the only difference being in the time (for which those parties remain).

There are also companies of the followers of Devadatta still existing. They regularly make offerings to the three previous Buddhas but not to Śākyamuni Buddha.³

Four le south east from the city of Śrāvastī a tope has been

¹ It is not quite clear whether the author had in mind here Central India as a whole which I think he had or only Kosāla, the part of it where he then was. In the older teaching there were only thirty two sects but there may have been three subdivisions of each. See Rhys Davids, *Buddhism* pp 98 99.

² This mention of 'the future world' is an important difference between the Korean and Chinese texts. The want of it in the latter has been a stumbling block in the way of all previous translators. Rémusat says in a note that 'the heretics limited themselves to speak of the duties of man in his actual life without connecting it by the notion of the metempsychosis with the anterior periods of existence through which he had passed'. But this is just the opposite of what Fā hien's meaning was, according to our Korean text. The notion of the metempsychosis was just that in which all the ninety six erroneous systems agreed among themselves and with Buddhism. If he had wished to say what the French smologue thinks he does say moreover he would probably have written 皆知今世耳. Let me add however that the connexion which Buddhism holds between the past world (including the present) and the future is not that of a metempsychosis or transmigration of souls for it does not appear to admit any separate existence of the soul. Adhering to its own phraseology of the wheel I would call its doctrine that of The Transrotation of Births. See Rhys Davids third Hibbert Lecture.

³ See p. 60 note 3 and p. 51, note 2.

erected at the place where the World honoured one encountered king Virūdhaha¹ when he wished to attack the kingdom of Shay-e², and took his stand before him at the side of the road³

CHAPTER XXI

THE THREE PREDECESSORS OF ŚĀKYAMUNI IN THE BUDDHASHIP

FIFTY le to the west of the city bring (the traveller) to a town named Too-wei⁴, the birthplace of Kāśyapa Buddha⁵. At the place where he and his father met⁶, and at that where he attained to parinirvāna, topes were erected. Over the entire relic of the whole body of him the Kāśyapa Tathāgata⁷, a great tope was also erected

¹ Or, more according to the phonetisation of the text, Vaidūrya. He was king of Kosalā, the son and successor of Prasenajit, and the destroyer of Kapilavastu the city of the Śākya family. His hostility to the Śākyas is sufficiently established, and it may be considered as certain that the name Shay-e, which, according to Julien's 'Méthode', p. 89 may be read Chiā-e, is the same as Kūi-e (迦夷) one of the phonetisations of Kapilavastu, as given by Eitel.

² This would be the interview in the 'Life of the Buddha' in Trübner's Oriental Series p. 116, when Virūdhaha on his march found Buddha under an old sakotato tree. It afforded him no shade, but he told the king that the thought of the danger of 'his relatives and kindred made it shady'. The king was moved to sympathy for the time and went back to Śrāvastī, but the destruction of Kapilavastu was only postponed for a short space, and Buddha himself acknowledged it to be inevitable in the connexion of cause and effect.

³ Identified, as Beal says by Cunningham with Tadwa a village nine miles to the west of Sāhara mahat. The birthplace of Kāśyapa Buddha is generally thought to have been Benāres. According to a calculation of Rémusat, from his birth to A.D. 1832 there were 1,992,859 years!

⁴ It seems to be necessary to have a meeting between every Buddha and his father. One at least is ascribed to Śākyamuni and his father (real or supposed) Śuddhodana.

⁵ This is the highest epithet given to every supreme Buddha, in Chinese 如來 meaning as Eitel p. 147, says, 'Sic profectus sum.' It is equivalent to Rightful Buddha, the true successor in the Supreme Buddha Line. Hardy

Going on south east from the city of Śrāvastī for twelve yojanas, (the travellers) came to a town named Na pei keā¹, the birthplace of Krakuchanda Buddha². At the place where he and his father met, and at that where he attained to parī nirvāṇa, topes were erected. Going north from here less than 1 yojana they came to a town which had been the birthplace of Kanakamuni Buddha³. At the place where he and his father met, and where he attained to parī nirvāṇa, topes were erected.

CHAPTER XXII

KAPILAVASTU ITS DESOLATION LEGENDS OF BUDDHA'S BIRTH, AND OTHER INCIDENTS IN CONNECTION WITH IT

LESS than a yojana to the east from this brought them to the city of Kapilavastu⁴, but in it there was neither king nor people. All was mound and desolation. Of inhabitants there were only some monks and a score or two of families of the common people. At the spot where stood the old palace of king Śuddhodana⁵ there have been made

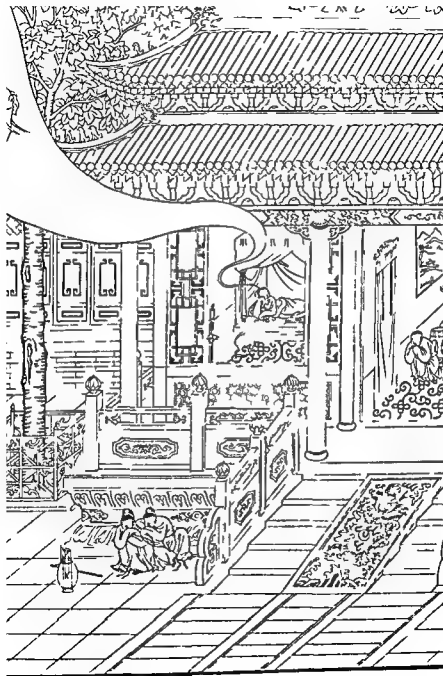
concludes his account of the Kāśyapa Buddha (M B p 97) with the following sentence — After his body was burnt the bones still remained in their usual position presenting the appearance of a perfect skeleton, and the whole of the inhabitants of Jambudvīpa assembling together, erected a dagoba over his relics one yojana in height!

¹ Na pei keā or Nabhiga is not mentioned elsewhere. Etel says this Buddha was born at the city of Gān ho (安和城) and Hardy gives his birthplace as Mekhala. It may be possible by means of Sanskrit to reconcile these statements.

² See note 2, p 51

³ Kapilavastu the city of beautiful virtue was the birthplace of Śākyamuni but was destroyed as intimated in the notes on last chapter, during his life time. It was situated a short distance north west of the present Goruckpoor lat 26 46 N lon 83° 19 E. Davids says (Manual p 25) It was on the banks of the river Rohini, the modern Kohana about 100 miles north west of the city of Benāres.

⁴ The father, or supposed father of Śākyamuni. He is here called 'the king white and pure' (白淨王). A more common appellation is the king of pure



images of the prince (his eldest son) and his mother¹, and at the places where that son appeared mounted on a white elephant when he entered his mother's womb², and where he turned his carriage round on seeing the sick man after he had gone out of the city by the eastern gate³, topes have been erected. The places (were also pointed out)⁴ where (the *gishi*) Āc⁵ inspected the marks⁶ (of Buddhahood on the body) of the heir apparent (when an infant), where when he was in company with Nanda and others, on the elephant being struck down and drawn on one side he tossed it away⁷, where he shot an arrow to the south east, and it

nce (淨飯王), but the character 飯, or 'rice, must be a mistake for 梵, Brahman and the appellation = 'Pure Brahman king

¹ The 'eldest son' or 'prince' was Śākyamuni and his mother had no other son. For 'his mother, see note 2 page 48. She was a daughter of Abjana or Anusakya, king of the neighbouring country of Koli and Yāsoḍharā an aunt of Śuddhodana. There appear to have been various intermarriages between the royal houses of Kapila and Koli.

² In 'The Life of the Buddha' p 15 we read that 'Buddha was now in the Tusita heaven and knowing that his time was come (the time for his last rebirth in the course of which he would become Buddha), he made the necessary examinations, and having decided that Māyā was the right mother in the midnight watch he entered her womb under the appearance of an elephant. See M B, pp 140-143 and still better, Rhys Davids 'Birth Stories' pp 58-63.

³ In Hardy's M B pp 154, 155 we read. As the prince (Siddhārtha the first name given to Śākyamuni, see Eitel under Sarvārthasiddha) was one day passing along he saw a deva under the appearance of a leper full of sores with a body like a water vessel, and legs like the pestle for pounding rice and when he learned from his charioter what it was that he saw he became agitated and returned at once to the palace. See also Rhys Davids' 'Buddhism' p 29.

⁴ This is an addition of my own instead of 'There are also topes erected at the following spots of former translators. Fā hien does not say there were memorial topes at all the 8 places.

⁵ Asita, see Eitel, p 15. He is called in Pali Kalā Devala, and had been a minister of Śuddhodana's father.

⁶ See note 2 page 39.

⁷ In 'The Life of the Buddha' we read that the Licchavis of Vāsālī had sent to the young prince a very fine elephant but when it was near Kapilavastu, Devadatta

went a distance of thirty *le* then entering the ground and making a spring to come forth, which men subsequently fashioned into a well from which travellers might drink¹, where, after he had attained to Wisdom², Buddha returned and saw the king, his father³ where five hundred Śākya⁴s quitted their families and did reverence to Upālī⁵ while the earth shook and moved in six different ways where Buddha preached his Law to the devas and the four deva kings and others kept the four doors (of the hall) so that (even) the king, his father, could not enter⁶ where Buddha sat under a nyagrodha tree which is still standing⁷, with his face to the east and (his aunt) Mahā prajāpati presented him with a

out of envy killed *ii* with a blow of his fist Nanda (not Ānanda but a half brother of Siddhārtha) coming that way saw the carcase lying on the road and pulled it on one side, but the Bodhisattva, seeing it there took it by the tail and tossed it over seven fences and ditches when the force of its fall made a great ditch. I suspect that the characters in the column have been disarranged and that we should read 撲拊象處, 射箭, 云云 Buddha that is Siddhārtha, was at this time only ten years old

¹ The young Śākya⁴s were shooting when the prince thus surpassed them all. He was then seventeen.

² See note 2 page 61

³ This was not the night when he finally fled from Kapilavastu and as he was leaving the palace, perceived his sleeping father and said 'Father though I love thee, yet a fear possesses me and I may not stay' —The Life of the Buddha p. 25. Most probably it was that related in M. B. pp. 199-204. See 'Buddhist Birth Stories' pp. 120-127.

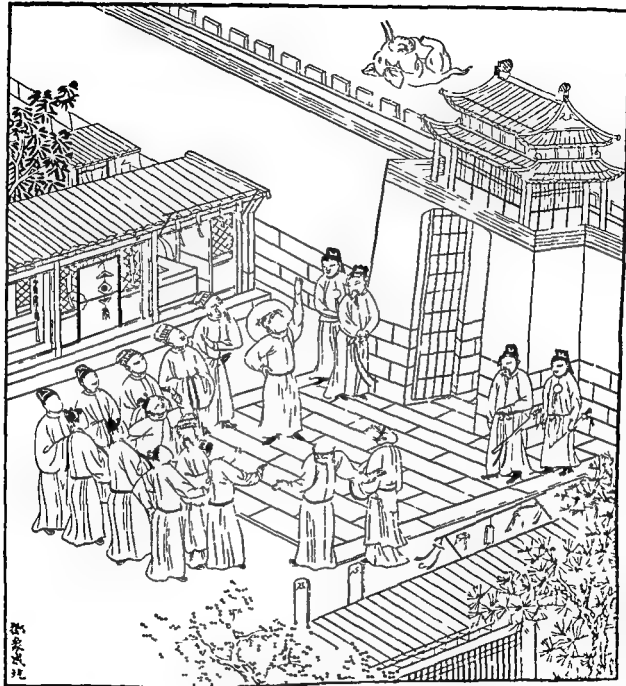
⁴ They did this I suppose to show their humility for Upālī was only a Śūdra by birth and had been a barber, so from the first did Buddhism assert its superiority to the conditions of rank and caste. Upālī was distinguished by his knowledge of the rules of discipline and praised on that account by Buddha. He was one of the three leaders of the first synod, and the principal compiler of the original Vinaya books.

⁵ I have not met with the particulars of this preaching.

⁶ Meaning as explained in Chinese 'a tree without knots, the ficus Indica. See Rhys Davids note, Manual ¶ 39 where he says that a branch of one of these trees was taken from Buddha Gayā to Anurādhapura in Ceylon in the middle of the third century B.C., and is still growing there the oldest historical tree in the world.



II BUDDHA JUST BORN WITH THE NAGAS SUPPLYING WATER TO WASH HIM 33



III BUDDHA TOSSING THE ELEPHANT OVER THE WALL.

Sanghāli¹, and (where) king Vaidūrya slew the seed of Śākya, and they all in dying became Śrotāpannas². A tope was erected at this last place which is still existing.

Several le north-east from the city was the king's field, where the heir apparent sat under a tree, and looked at the ploughers³.

Fifty le east from the city was a garden, named Lumbini⁴, where the queen entered the pond and bathed. Having come forth from the pond on the northern bank, after (walking) twenty paces she lifted up her hand laid hold of a branch of a tree, and, with her face to the east, gave birth to the heir apparent⁵. When he fell to the ground, he (immediately) walked seven paces. Two dragon kings (appeared) and washed his body. At the place where they did so, there was immediately formed a well, and from it, as well as from the above pond where (the queen) bathed⁶, the monks (even) now constantly take the water, and drink it.

¹ See note 1, page 39. I have not met with the account of this presentation. See the long account of Prajapati in M B, pp 306-315.

² See note 2, page 57. The Śrotāpannas are the first class of saints who are not to be reborn in a lower sphere but attain to nirvana after having been reborn seven times consecutively as men or devas. The Chinese editions state there were 1000 of the Śākya seed. The general account is that they were 500 all maidens who refused to take their place in king Vaidūrya's harem and were in consequence taken to a pond and had their hands and feet cut off. There Buddha came to them, had their wounds dressed and preached to them the Law. They died in the faith and were reborn in the region of the four Great Kings. Thence they came back and visited Buddha at Jetavana in the night and there they obtained the reward of Śrotāpanna. 'The Life of the Buddha, p 121.

³ See the account of this in M B p 150. The account of it reminds me of the ploughing by the sovereign which has been an institution in China from the earliest times. But there we have no magic and no extravagance.

⁴ 'The place of Liberation,' see note 2 page 38.

⁵ See the accounts of this event in M B pp 145, 146, 'The Life of the Buddha' pp 15-16 and 'Buddhist Birth Stories, p 66.

⁶ There is difficulty in construing the text of this last statement. Mr Beal had, no doubt inadvertently omitted it in his first translation. In his revised version he gives for it I cannot say happily. As well as at the pool, the water of which came down from above for washing (the child).

There are four places of regular and fixed occurrence (in the history of) all Buddhas —first, the place where they attained to perfect Wisdom (and became Buddha), second the place where they turned the wheel of the Law¹, third the place where they preached the Law, discoursed of righteousness, and discomfited (the advocates of) erroneous doctrines, and fourth the place where they came down, after going up to the Trayastrimśas heaven to preach the Law for the benefit of their mothers. Other places in connexion with them became remarkable according to the manifestations which were made at them at particular times.

The country of Kapilavastu is a great scene of empty desolation. The inhabitants are few and far between. On the roads people have to be on their guard against white elephants² and lions and should not travel incautiously.

CHAPTER XXIII

RĀMA, AND ITS TOPE

EAST from Buddha's birthplace and at a distance of five yojanas, there is a kingdom called Rāma³. The king of this country having obtained one portion of the relics of Buddha's body⁴, returned with it and built over it a tope named the Rāma tope. By the side of it there was a pool and in the pool a dragon which constantly kept watch over (the tope) and presented offerings at it day and night. When king Aśoka

¹ See note 3 page 49. See also Davids' Manual p. 45. The latter says that to turn the wheel of the Law means to set rolling the royal chariot wheel of a universal empire of truth and righteousness. But he admits that this is more grandiloquent than the phraseology was in the ears of Buddhists. I prefer the words quoted from Etel in the note referred to. 'They turned' is probably equivalent to 'They began to turn.'

² Fa hien does not say that he himself saw any of these white elephants nor does he speak of the lions as of any particular colour. We shall find by and by in a note further on that to make them appear more terrible they are spoken of as black.

³ Rāma or Rāmagrāma between Kapilavastu and Kuśānagara.

⁴ See the account of the eightfold division of the relics of Buddha's body in the Sacred Books of the East vol. xi, Buddhist Suttas, pp. 133-136.

came forth into the world, he wished to destroy the eight topes (over the relics) and to build (instead of them) 84,000 topes¹. After he had thrown down the seven (others), he wished next to destroy this tope. But then the dragon showed itself took the king into its palace², and when he had seen all the things provided for offerings, it said to him, 'If you are able with your offerings to exceed these, you can destroy the tope and take it all away. I will not contend with you. The king however, knew that such appliances for offerings were not to be had anywhere in the world, and thereupon returned (without carrying out his purpose).

(Afterwards) the ground all about became overgrown with vegetation, and there was nobody to sprinkle and sweep (about the tope) but a herd of elephants came regularly, which brought water with their trunks to water the ground and various kinds of flowers and incense which they presented at the tope. (Once) there came from one of the kingdoms a devotee³ to worship at the tope. When he encountered the elephants he was greatly alarmed and screened himself among the trees, but when he saw them go through with the offerings in the most proper manner the thought filled him with great sadness—that there should be no monastery here, (the inmates of which) might serve the tope but the elephants have to do the watering and sweeping. Forthwith he gave up the great prohibitions (by which he was bound)⁴ and resumed the status of a Śrāmanera⁵. With his own hands he cleared away the grass and trees put the place in good order and made it pure and clean. By the power of his exhortations he prevailed on the king of the country to

¹ The bones of the human body are supposed to consist of 84 000 atoms and hence the legend of Aśoka's wish to build 84 000 topes, one over each atom of Śakyamuni's skeleton.

² Fa hien, it appears to me intended his readers to understand that the nāga guardian had a palace of his own inside or underneath the pool or tank.

³ It stands out on the narrative as a whole that we have not here some pilgrims but one devotee.

⁴ What the great prohibitions which the devotee now gave up were we cannot tell. Being what he was a monk of more than ordinary ascetical habits, he may have undertaken peculiar and difficult vows.

⁵ The Śrāmanera, or in Chinese Shāmei. See note 7 page 45.

form a residence for monks and when that was done he became head of the monastery. At the present day there are monks residing in it. This event is of recent occurrence but in all the succession from that time till now there has always been a Śrāmapera head of the establishment.

CHAPTER XXIV

WHERE BUDDHA FINALLY RENOUNCED THE WORLD, AND WHERE HE DIED

EAST from here four yojanas there is the place where the heir apparent sent back Chandaḥka with his white horse¹ and there also a tope was erected.

Four yojanas to the east from this (the travellers) came to the Charcoal tope² where there is also a monastery.

Going on twelve yojanas, still to the east, they came to the city of Kuśa nagara³, on the north of which, between two trees⁴, on the bank of the Nairāñjanā⁵ river, is the place where the World honoured one with his head to the north attained to parī nirvāṇa (and died). There

¹ This was on the night when Śākyamuni finally left his palace and family to fulfil the course to which he felt that he was called. Chandaḥka in Pāli Channa was the prince's charioteer and in sympathy with him. So also was the white horse Kanthaka (Kanthakanam Aśvarāja) which neighed his delight till the devas heard him. See M. B., pp. 158-161 and Davids' Manual, pp. 32-33. According to Buddhist Birth Stories p. 87 the noble horse never returned to the city, but died of grief at being left by his master to be reborn immediately in the Trayastriṃśas heaven as the deva Kanthaka.

² Beal and Giles call this the Ashes tope. I also would have preferred to call it so, but the Chinese character is 炭 not 灰. Rémusat has la tour des charbons. It was over the place of Buddha's cremation.

³ In Pāli Kusinārā. It got its name from the Kuśa grass (the poa cynosuroides), and its ruins are still extant, near Kusāh 180 N.W. from Patna 'about, says Davids '120 miles N.N.E. of Benāres and 80 miles due east of Kapilavastu.

⁴ The Śāla tree the Shorea robusta, which yields the famous teak wood.

⁵ Confounded according to Eitel even by Hsüan-chwang with the Hiranya vatī which flows past the city on the south.



also are the places where Subhadra¹, the last (of his converts) attained to Wisdom (and became an Arhat), where in his coffin of gold they made offerings to the World honoured one for seven days², where the Vajrapāni laid aside his golden club³, and where the eight kings divided the relics (of the burnt body)⁴ —at all these places were built topes and monasteries all of which are now existing

In the city the inhabitants are few and far between, comprising only the families belonging to the (different) societies of monks

Going from this to the south east for twelve yojanas, they came to the place where the Lichchhavis⁵ wished to follow Buddha to (the

¹ A Brahman of Benares, said to have been 120 years old, who came to learn from Buddha the very night he died. Ānanda would have repulsed him, but Buddha ordered him to be introduced and then putting aside the ingenious but unimportant question which he propounded preached to him the Law. The Brahman was converted and attained at once to Arhatship. Etel says that he attained to nirvāṇa a few moments before Śakyamuni. See the full account of him and his conversion in 'Buddhist Suttas' pp 103-110

² This treating the dead Buddha as if he had been a Chakravartī king Hardy's M B p 347, says — For the place of cremation, the princes (of Kuśināra) offered their own coronation hall, which was decorated with the utmost magnificence and the body was deposited in a golden sarcophagus. See the account of a cremation which Fā hien witnessed in Ceylon chap xxxix

³ The name Vajrapāni is explained as 'he who holds in his hand the diamond club (or pestle=sceptre) which is one of the many names of Indra or Śakra. He therefore, that great protector of Buddhism would seem to be intended here, but the difficulty with me is that neither in Hardy nor Rockhill nor any other writer have I met with any manifestation of himself made by Indra on this occasion. The princes of Kuśanagara were called mallas 'strong or mighty heroes', so also were those of Pāvā and Vāśālī and a question arises whether the language may not refer to some story which Fā hien had heard — something which they did on this great occasion. Vajrapāni is also explained as meaning the diamond mighty hero but the epithet of diamond is not so applicable to them as to Indra. The clause may hereafter obtain more elucidation

⁴ Of Kuśanagara Pāvā Vāśālī, and other kingdoms. Kings, princes brahmins — each wanted the whole relic but they agreed to an eightfold division at the suggestion of the brahman Drona

⁵ These strong heroes were the chiefs of Vāśālī a kingdom and city, with

place of) his pari nirvâna, and where, when he would not listen to them and they kept cleaving to him unwilling to go away, he made to appear a large and deep ditch which they could not cross over, and gave them his alms bowl, as a pledge of his regard, (thus) sending them back to their families. There a stone pillar was erected with an account of this event engraved upon it

CHAPTER XXV

VAISÂLI THE TOPE CALLED 'WEAPONS LAID DOWN' THE COUNCIL OF VAISÂLI

EAST from this city ten yojanas, (the travellers) came to the kingdom of Vaisâli. North of the city so named is a large forest having in it the double galleried vihâra¹ where Buddha dwelt and the tope over half the body of Ānanda². Inside the city the woman Āmbapâli³ built a vihâra in honour of Buddha, which is now standing as it was at first. Three le south of the city, on the west of the road, (is the) garden (which) the same Āmbapâli presented to Buddha in which he might

an oligarchical constitution. They embraced Buddhism early and were noted for their peculiar attachment to Buddha. The second synod was held at Vaisâli as related in the next chapter. The ruins of the city still exist at Bassahar north of Patna the same I suppose, as Besarh, twenty miles north of Hajipur. See Beal's Revised Version p. lu

¹ It is difficult to tell what was the peculiar form of this vihâra from which it got its name, something about the construction of its door, or cupboards or galleries.

² See the explanation of this in the next chapter.

³ Āmbapâli, Āmrâpâli or Āmrâṇkâ the guardian of the Āmra (probably the mango) tree is famous in Buddhist annals. See the account of her in M. B., pp. 456-8. She was a courtesan. She had been in many narakas or hells was 100 000 times a female beggar and 10 000 times a prostitute, but maintaining perfect continence during the period of Kāśyapa Buddha Śākyamuni's predecessor she had been born a devi and finally appeared in earth under an Amra tree in Vaisâli. There again she fell into her old ways and had a son by king Bimbisāra but she was won over by Buddha to virtue and chastity renounced the world and attained to the state of an Ārhat. See the earliest account of Āmbapâli's presentation of the garden in Buddhist Suttas, pp. 30-33 and the note there from Bishop Bigandet on p. 33-34.

reside When Buddha was about to attain to his *pari-nirvāna*, as he was quitting the city by the west gate, he turned round, and beholding the city on his right, said to them, 'Here I have taken my last walk'¹ Men subsequently built a tope at this spot

Three *le* north west of the city there is a tope called, 'Bows and weapons laid down' The reason why it got that name was this —The inferior wife of a king whose country lay along the river Ganges brought forth from her womb a ball of flesh The superior wife jealous of the other, said, 'You have brought forth a thing of evil omen, and immediately it was put into a box of wood and thrown into the river Farther down the stream another king was walking and looking about, when he saw the wooden box (floating) in the water (He had it brought to him), opened it, and found a thousand little boys, upright and complete and each one different from the others He took them and had them brought up They grew tall and large and very daring and strong, crushing all opposition in every expedition which they undertook By and by they attacked the kingdom of their real father, who became in consequence greatly distressed and sad His inferior wife asked what it was that made him so and he replied, 'That king has a thousand sons, daring and strong beyond compare and he wishes with them to attack my kingdom, this is what makes me sad' The wife said, 'You need not be sad and sorrowful Only make a high gallery on the wall of the city on the east, and when the thieves come I shall be able to make them retire The king did as she said, and when the enemies came, she said to them from the tower 'You are my sons, why are you acting so unnaturally and rebelliously? They replied, 'Who are you that say you are our mother?' 'If you do not believe me,' she said, look, all of you, towards me and open your mouths She then pressed her breasts with her two hands and each sent forth 500 jets of milk, which fell into the mouths of the thousand sons The thieves (thus) knew that she was their mother, and laid down their bows and weapons'² The two kings, the fathers,

¹ *Beal* gives, 'In this place I have performed the last religious act of my earthly career, Giles 'This is the last place I shall visit *Rémusat* 'C'est un lieu où je reviendrai bien longtemps après ceci Perhaps the 'walk' to which Buddha referred had been for meditation

² See the account of this legend in the note in *M B*, pp 235, 236, different but

hereupon fell into reflection and both got to be Pratyeka Buddhas¹ The tope of the two Pratyeka Buddhas is still existing

In a subsequent age, when the World honoured one had attained to perfect Wisdom (and become Buddha) he said to his disciples, 'This is the place where I in a former age laid down my bow and weapons'² It was thus that subsequently men got to know (the fact) and raised the tope on this spot, which in this way received its name The thousand little boys were the thousand Buddhas of this Bhadra kalpa³

It was by the side of the 'Weapons laid down tope that Buddha, having given up the idea of living longer, said to Ānanda, In three months from this I will attain to pari-nirvāṇa⁴ and King Māra⁵ had so fascinated and stupefied Ānanda, that he was not able to ask Buddha to remain longer in this world

Three or four le east from this place there is a tope (commemorating

not less absurd. The first part of Fā hien's narrative will have sent the thoughts of some of my readers to the exposure of the infant Moses as related in Exodus

¹ See note 3 page 40

² Thus Śākyamuni had been one of the thousand little boys who floated in the box in the Ganges How long back the former age was we cannot tell. I suppose the tope of the two fathers who became Pratyeka Buddhas had been built like the one commemorating the laying down of weapons after Buddha had told his disciples of the strange events in the past

³ Bhadra kalpa, 'the Kalpa of worthies or sages' 'This says Eitel p 22, 'is a designation for a Kalpa of stability so called because 1000 Buddhas appear in the course of it. Our present period is a Bhadra kalpa, and four Buddhas have already appeared It is the last 236 millions of years but over 151 millions have already elapsed

⁴ 'The king of demons' The name Māra is explained by the murderer, 'the destroyer of virtue' and similar appellations He is says Eitel 'the personification of lust the god of love sin and death the arch-enemy of goodness residing in the heaven Paranirmita Vaśavartin on the top of the Kāmadhātu He assumes different forms especially monstrous ones to tempt or frighten the saints or sends his daughters or inspires wicked men like Devadatta or the Nīgranthas to do his work He is often represented with 100 arms and riding on an elephant The oldest form of the legend in this paragraph is in Buddhist Suttas Sacred Books of the East vol xi, pp 41-55 where Buddha says that if Ānanda had asked him thrice, he would have postponed his death

the following occurrence) —A hundred years after the *pari-nirvāna* of Buddha, some Bhikshus of Vaisali went wrong in the matter of the disciplinary rules in ten particulars and appealed for their justification to what they said were the words of Buddha. Hereupon the Arhats and Bhikshus observant of the rules, to the number in all of 700 monks, examined afresh and collated the collection of disciplinary books¹. Subsequently men built at this place the tope (in question), which is still existing

CHAPTER XXVI

REMARKABLE DEATH OF ANANDA

FOUR *yojanas* on from this place to the east brought the travellers to the confluence of the five rivers². When Ananda was going from Magadha³ to Vaisali wishing his *pari-nirvāna* to take place (there) the

¹ Or the *Vinaya piṭaka*. The meeting referred to was an important one and is generally spoken of as the second Great Council of the Buddhist Church. See, on the formation of the Buddhist Canon, Hardy's *E. M.* chap. xviii and the last chapter of Davids' *Manual on the History of the Order*. The first Council was that held at Rajagṛha shortly after Buddha's death under the presidency of Kāśyapa —say about *B. C.* 410. The second was that spoken of here —say about *B. C.* 300. In Davids' *Manual* (p. 216) we find the ten points of discipline in which the heretics (I can use that term here) claimed at least indulgence. Two meetings were held to consider and discuss them. At the former the orthodox party barely succeeded in carrying their condemnation of the laxer monks and a second and larger meeting of which Fa-hien speaks was held in consequence and a more emphatic condemnation passed. At the same time all the book and subjects of discipline seem to have undergone a careful revision.

The *Cortan* text is clearer than the Chinese as to those who composed the Council,—the Arhats and orthodox monks. The leader among them was a Yasas or Yaśada or Yedaputtra who had been a disciple of Ananda and must therefore have been a very old man.

² This spot does not appear to have been identified. It could not be far from Patna.

³ Magadha was for some time the headquarters of Buddhism, the holy land covered with *vihāras*, a fact perpetuated as has been observed in a previous

hereupon fell into reflection and both got to be Pratyeka Buddhas¹ The tope of the two Pratyeka Buddhas is still existing

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³ Magadha was for some time the headquarters of Buddhism, the holy land covered with *viḥāras*, a fact perpetuated as has been observed in a previous

devas informed king Ajātasatru¹ of it, and the king immediately pursued him in his own grand carriage, with a body of soldiers and had reached the river (On the other hand) the Lichchhavis of Vaiśālī had heard that Ānanda was coming (to their city) and they on their part came to meet him (In this way) they all arrived together at the river and Ānanda considered that, if he went forward king Ajātasatru would be very angry, while, if he went back the Lichchhavis would resent his conduct. He thereupon in the very middle of the river burnt his body in a fiery ecstasy of Samādhi², and his pari nirvāna was attained. He divided

note in the name of the present Behar, the southern portion of which corresponds to the ancient kingdom of Magadha.

¹ In Singhalese Ajāsāt. See the account of his conversion in M II pp 321-326. He was the son of king Bimbisara, who was one of the first royal converts to Buddhism. Ajāsāt murdered his father or at least wrought his death and was at first opposed to Śākyamuni and a favourer of Devadatta. When converted he became famous for his liberality in almsgiving.

² Etel has a long article (pp 114-115) on the meaning of Samādhi, which is one of the seven sections of wisdom (bodhi-anga). Hardv defines it as meaning perfect tranquillity. Turnour as meditative abstraction. Burnouf as self control and Edkins as 'ecstatic reverie'. 'Samādhi' says Etel signifies the highest pitch of abstract ecstatic meditation: a state of absolute indifference to all influences from within or without, a state of torpor of both the material and spiritual forces of vitality: a sort of terrestrial nirvāna consistently culminating in total destruction of life. He then quotes apparently the language of the text 'He consumed his body by Agni (the fire of) Samādhi' and says it is 'a common expression for the effects of such ecstatic, ultra mystic self annihilation. All this is simply a darkening of counsel by words without knowledge. Some facts concerning the death of Ānanda are hidden beneath the darkness of the phraseology which it is impossible for us to ascertain. By or in Samādhi he burns his body in the very middle of the river and then he divides the relic of the burnt body into two parts (for so evidently Fa hien intended his narration to be taken) and leaves one half on each bank. The account of Ānanda's death in Nien chang History of Buddha and the Patriarchs is much more extravagant. Crowds of men and devas are brought together to witness it. The body is divided into four parts. One is conveyed to the Tushta heaven: a second to the palace of a certain Naga king: a third is given to Ajātasatru, and the fourth to the Lichchhavis. What it all really means I cannot tell.

called to him the spirits and announced to them, 'To-morrow you will all receive my invitation, but as there are no mats for you to sit on, let each one bring (his own seat). Next day the spirits came, each one bringing with him a great rock, (like) a wall four or five paces square, (for a seat). When their sitting was over the king made them form a hill with the large stones piled on one another, and also at the foot of the hill, with five large square stones, to make an apartment which might be more than thirty cubits long, twenty cubits wide and more than ten cubits high.

In this city there had resided a great Brahman¹, named Râdha sâmi² a professor of the mātṛyâna, of clear discernment and much wisdom who understood everything living by himself in spotless purity. The king of the country honoured and revered him, and served him as his teacher. If he went to inquire for and greet him, the king did not presume to sit down alongside of him, and if, in his love and reverence he took hold of his hand, as soon as he let it go, the Brahman made haste to pour water on it and wash it. He might be more than fifty years old, and all the kingdom looked up to him. By means of this one man the Law of Buddha was widely made known and the followers of other doctrines did not find it in their power to persecute the body of monks in any way.

By the side of the tope of Aśoka there has been made a mahā yâna monastery very grand and beautiful, there is also a hinayâna one, the two together containing six hundred or seven hundred monks. The rules of demeanour and the scholastic arrangements³ in them are worthy of observation.

Shamans of the highest virtue from all quarters, and students inquirers

¹ A Brahman by caste but a Buddhist in faith

² So by the help of Julien's 'Méthode' I transliterate the Chinese characters 羅大私迷. Beal gives Râdhasâmi his Chinese text having a 婆 between 私 and 迷. I suppose the name was Râdhasâmi or Râdhasâmi.

³ 庠序 the names of two kinds of schools often occurring in the Lǐ Xǐ and Mencius. Why should there not have been schools in those monasteries in India as there were in China? Fā hien himself grew up with other boys in a monastery and no doubt had to 'go to school'. And the next sentence shows us there might be schools for more advanced students as well as for the Śrāmaneras.

wishing to find out truth and the grounds of it, all resort to these monasteries. There also resides in this monastery a Brahman teacher, whose name also is Mañjuśrī¹, whom the Shamans of greatest virtue in the kingdom, and the mahāyāna Bhikshus honour and look up to.

The cities and towns of this country are the greatest of all in the Middle Kingdom. The inhabitants are rich and prosperous, and vie with one another in the practice of benevolence and righteousness. Every year on the eighth day of the second month they celebrate a procession of images. They make a four wheeled car and on it erect a structure of five storeys by means of bamboos tied together. This is supported by a king post, with poles and lances slanting from it, and is rather more than twenty cubits high, having the shape of a tope. White and silk like cloth of hair² is wrapped all round it, which is then painted in various colours. They make figures of devas, with gold, silver, and lapis lazuli grandly blended and having silken streamers and canopies hung out over them. On the four sides are niches, with a Buddha seated in each and a Bodhisattva standing in attendance on him. There may be twenty cars all grand and imposing, but each one different from the others. On the day mentioned, the monks and laity within the borders all come together, they have singers and skilful musicians. They pay their devotions with flowers and incense. The Brahmins come and invite the Buddhas to enter the city. These do so in order and remain two nights in it. All through the night they keep lamps burning, have skilful music, and present offerings. This is the practice in all the other kingdoms as well. The Heads of the Vaiśya families in them establish in the cities houses for dispensing charity and medicines. All the poor and destitute in the country, orphans, widowers and childless men, maimed people and cripples, and all who are diseased, go to those houses, and are provided with every kind of help, and doctors examine their diseases. They get the food and medicines which their cases require, and are made to feel at ease, and when they are better, they go away of themselves.

When king Aśoka destroyed the seven topes, (intending) to make

¹ See note 1 page 4. It is perhaps with reference to the famous Bodhisattva that the Brahman here is said to be also named Mañjuśrī.

² ? Cashmere cloth

eighty four thousand¹, the first which he made was the great tope, more than three *le* to the south of this city. In front of this there is a foot print of Buddha where a vihára has been built. The door of it faces the north, and on the south of it there is a stone pillar fourteen or fifteen cubits in circumference, and more than thirty cubits high, on which there is an inscription saying: *Asoka gave the jambudvīpa to the general body of all the monks and then redeemed it from them with money. Thus he did three times*². North from the tope 300 or 400 paces king *Asoka* built the city of *Ne-le*³. In it there is a stone pillar, which also is more than thirty feet high, with a lion on the top of it. On the pillar there is an inscription recording the things which led to the building of *Ne-le*, with the number of the year, the day, and the month.

CHAPTER XXVIII

RĀJAGRIHA, NEW AND OLD LEGENDS AND INCIDENTS CONNECTED WITH IT

(THE travellers) went on from this to the south east for nine *yojanas*, and came to a small solitary rocky hill⁴ at the head or end of which⁵ was an apartment of stone, facing the south—the place where Buddha sat, when Śakra Ruler of Devas brought the deva musician, Pañcha

¹ See note 1 page 69

² We wish that we had more particulars of this great transaction and that we knew what value in money Asoka set on the whole world. It is to be observed that he gave it to the monks and did not receive it from them. Their right was from him and he bought it back. He was the only 'Power' that was

³ We know nothing more of *Ne-le*. It could only have been a small place, an outpost for the defence of Pātalputra.

⁴ Called by Hsüan chwang *Indra śila guhā* or 'The cavern of Indra'. It has been identified with a hill near the village of Gurjek on the bank of the Pañchāna river about thirty six miles from Gaya. The hill terminates in two peaks overhanging the river and it is the more northern and higher of these which Fa hien had in mind. It bears an oblong terrace covered with the ruins of several buildings especially of a vihára.

⁵ This does not mean the top or summit of the hill, but its 'headland' where it ended at the river.

(śikha)¹, to give pleasure to him by playing on his lute. Śakra then asked Buddha about forty two subjects, tracing (the questions) out with his finger one by one on the rock². The prints of his tracing are still there, and here also there is a monastery.

A yojana south west from this place brought them to the village of Nāla³, where Sānputta⁴ was born, and to which also he returned and attained here his parī nirvāna. Over the spot (where his body was burned) there was built a tope, which is still in existence.

Another yojana to the west brought them to New Rājagriha⁵,—the new city which was built by king Ajātaśatru. There were two monasteries in it. Three hundred paces outside the west gate, king Ajātaśatru, having obtained one portion of the relics of Buddha, built (over them) a tope high, large, grand, and beautiful. Leaving the city by the south gate, and proceeding south four le, one enters a valley, and comes to a circular space formed by five hills, which stand all round

¹ See the account of this visit of Śakra in M. B., pp 288-290. It is from Hardy that we are able to complete here the name of the musician, which appears in Fā hien as only Paścha, or 'Five. His harp or lute, we are told, was 'twelve miles long.

² Hardy (M. B., pp 288, 289) makes the subjects only thirteen which are still to be found in one of the Sūtras ('the Dik Sanga, in the Śakra-praśna Sūtra'). Whether it was Śakra who wrote his questions, or Buddha who wrote the answers, depends on the punctuation. It seems better to make Śakra the writer.

³ Or Nālanda identified with the present Baragong. A grand monastery was subsequently built at it, famous by the residence for five years of Hsüan-chwang.

⁴ See note 3 page 44. There is some doubt as to the statement that Nāla was his birthplace.

⁵ The city of Royal Palaces the residence of the Magadha kings from Dibhisāra to Aśoka, the first metropolis of Buddhism, at the foot of the Grīdhra-kūta mountains. Here the first synod assembled within a year after Śākyamuni's death. Its ruins are still extant at the village of Rajghur sixteen miles SW of Behār, and form an object of pilgrimage to the Jains (E. H., p 200). It is called New Rājagriha to distinguish it from Kusāgarapura, a few miles from it, the old residence of the kings. Estel says it was built by Dibhisāra, while Fā hien ascribes it to Ajātaśatru. I suppose the son finished what the father had begun.

footprints which he has left, and the place where he lived, and nothing more. With this, in front of the rock cavern, he chanted the Śūrangama Sūtra, remained there over the night and then returned towards the New City¹

CHAPTER XXX

THE ŚRATAPARṆA CAVE, OR CAVE OF THE FIRST COUNCIL. LEGENDS SUICIDE OF A BHIKSHU

OUT from the old city after walking over 300 paces on the west of the road, (the travellers) found the Karanda Bamboo garden², where the (old) viḥāra is still in existence with a company of monks, who keep (the ground about it) swept and watered

North of the viḥāra two or three le there was the Śmaśānam, which name means in Chinese 'the field of graves into which the dead are thrown'³

Tripitaka, Sūtra Pitaka Nos 399 446 It was the former of these that came on this occasion to the thoughts and memory of Fa hien

¹ In a note (p lx) to his revised version of our author Mr Beal says, 'There is a full account of this perilous visit of Fā hien and how he was attacked by tigers in the "History of the High Priests". But 'the high priests' merely means distinguished monks 'eminent monks, as Mr Nanjo exactly renders the adjectival character. Nor was Fā hien attacked by tigers on the peak. No 'tigers appear in the Memoir. 'Two black lions indeed crouched before him for a time this night 'licking their lips and waving their tails but their appearance was to 'terrify, and not to attack him, and when they saw him resolute they drooped their heads, put down their tails and prostrated themselves before him. This of course is not an historical account, but a legendary tribute to his bold perseverance

² Karanda Venuvana a park presented to Buddha by king Bimbisāra who also built a viḥāra in it. See the account of the transaction in M. B., II 194. The place was called Karanda from a creature so named, which awoke the king just as a snake was about to bite him and thus saved his life. In Hardy the creature appears as a squirrel but Etel says that the Karanda is a bird of a sweet voice, resembling a magpie but herding in flocks, the cuculus melano leucus. See 'Buddhist Birth Stories,' p 116

³ The language here is rather contemptuous, as if our author had no sympathy

As they kept along the mountain on the south and went west for 300 paces, they found a dwelling among the rocks, named the Pippala cave¹, in which Buddha regularly sat in meditation after taking his (midday) meal

Going on still to the west for five or six le, on the north of the hill, in the shade they found the cavern called Śrataparna², the place where, after the nirvāṇa³ of Buddha, 500 Arhats collected the Sūtras. When they brought the Sūtras forth, three lofty seats⁴ had been prepared and grandly ornamented. Śānputra occupied the one on the left, and Maudgalyāyana that on the right. Of the number of five hundred one was wanting. Mahākāśyapa was president (on the middle seat). Ānanda was then outside the door, and could not get in⁵. At the place there was (subsequently) raised a tope which is still existing.

Along (the sides of) the hill there are also a very great many cells among the rocks, where the various Arhans sat and meditated. As you

with any other mode of disposing of the dead, but by his own Buddhistic method of cremation.

¹ The Chinese characters used for the name of this cavern serve also to name the pippala (peepul) tree the *ficus religiosa*. They make us think that there was such a tree overshadowing the cave but Fā hien would hardly have neglected to mention such a circumstance.

² A very great place in the annals of Buddhism. The Council in the Śrataparna cave did not come together fortuitously but appears to have been convoked by the older members to settle the rules and doctrines of the order. The cave was prepared for the occasion by king Ajātasatru. From the expression about the bringing forth of the King it would seem that the Sūtras or some of them had been already committed to writing. May not the meaning of King (王) here be extended to the Vinaya rules, as well as the Sūtras, and mean 'the standards of the system generally'? See Davids' Manual chapter ix, and Sacred Books of the East, vol. xx Vinaya Texts pp. 370-385.

³ So in the text evidently for pari nirvāṇa.

⁴ Instead of 'high' seats the Chinese texts have 'vacant'. The character for 'prepared' denotes spread, —they were carpeted, perhaps both cushioned and carpeted being rugs spread on the ground raised higher than the other places for seats.

⁵ Did they not contrive to let him in with some cachannation, even in so august an assembly, that so important a member should have been shut out?

leave the old city on the north, and go down east for three *le*, there is the rock dwelling of Devadatta and at a distance of fifty paces from it there is a large, square black rock. Formerly there was a bhikshu, who, as he walked backwards and forwards upon it thought with himself — 'This body¹ is impermanent, a thing of bitterness and vanity², and which cannot be looked on as pure³. I am weary of this body and troubled by it as an evil.' With this he grasped a knife, and was about to kill himself. But he thought again — 'The World honoured one laid down a prohibition against one's killing himself.'⁴ Further it occurred to him — 'Yes he did but I now only wish to kill three poisonous thieves.'⁵ Immediately with the knife he cut his throat. With the first gash into the flesh he attained the state of a Śrotāpanna⁶, when he had gone half through, he attained to be an Anāgāmin⁷, and when he had cut right through, he was an Arhat and attained to parī nirvāna⁸, (and died)

¹ 'The life of this body would I think fairly express the idea of the bhikshu

² See the account of Buddha's preaching in chapter xviii

³ The sentiment of this clause is not easily caught.

⁴ See E. M. p. 15 — Buddha made a law forbidding the monks to commit suicide. He prohibited any one from discoursing on the miseries of life in such a manner as to cause desperation. See also M. II pp. 464-465

⁵ Beal says — Evil desire hatred ignorance

⁶ See note * p. 57

⁷ The Anāgāmin belong to the third degree of Buddhist saintship the third class of Āryas (note * page 57) who are no more liable to be reborn as men but are to be born once more as devas when they will forthwith become Arhats and attain to nirvāna. E. H. pp. 8-9

⁸ Our author expresses no opinion of his own on the act of this bhikshu. Must it not have been a good act when it was attended in the very act of performance by such blessed consequences? But if Buddhism had not something better to show than what appears here it would not attract the interest which it now does. The bhikshu was evidently rather out of his mind and the verdict of a coroner's inquest of this nineteenth century would have pronounced that he killed himself in a fit of insanity



CHAPTER XXXI

GAYĀ. ŚĀKYAMUNI'S ATTAINING TO THE BUDDHASHIP, AND
OTHER LEGENDS

FROM this place, after travelling to the west for four *yojanas* (the pilgrims) came to the city of Gayā¹ but inside the city all was emptiness and desolation. Going on again to the south for twenty *le* they arrived at the place where the Bodhisattva for six years practised with himself painful austerities. All around was forest.

Three *le* west from here they came to the place where when Buddha had gone into the water to bathe, a deva bent down the branch of a tree, by means of which he succeeded in getting out of the pool².

Two *le* north from this was the place where the Grāmika girls presented to Buddha the rice gruel made with milk³, and two *le* north from this (again) was the place where, seated on a rock under a great tree and facing the east he ate (the gruel). The tree and the rock are there at the present day. The rock may be six cubits in breadth and length, and rather more than two cubits in height. In Central India the cold and heat are so equally tempered that trees will live in it for several thousand and even for ten thousand years.

Half a *yojana* from this place to the north east there was a cavern in

¹ Gayā, a city of Magadha was north west of the present Gayah (lat. 24° 47' N., lon 85° 1' E.) It was here that Śākyamuni lived for seven years after quitting his family until he attained to Buddhahood. The place is still frequented by pilgrims. E. H. p. 41.

² This is told so as to make us think that he was in danger of being drowned, but this does not appear in the only other account of the incident I have met with—in *The Life of the Buddha* p. 31. And he was not yet Buddha though he is here called so unless indeed the narrative is confused and the incidents do not follow in the order of time.

³ An incident similar to this is told, with many additions, in Hardy's *M. B.*, pp. 166–168. *The Life of the Buddha* p. 30, and the *Buddhist Birth Stories* pp. 91–92, but the name of the ministering girl or girls is different. I take Grāmika from a note in Beal's revised version, it seems to me a happy solution of the difficulty caused by the 彌家 of Fa Hien.

the rocks, into which the Bodhisattva entered, and sat cross legged with his face to the west (As he did so), he said to himself, 'If I am to attain to perfect wisdom (and become Buddha), let there be a supernatural attestation of it' On the wall of the rock there appeared immediately the shadow of a Buddha, rather more than three feet in length, which is still bright at the present day. At this moment heaven and earth were greatly moved, and devas in the air spoke plainly, 'This is not the place where any Buddha of the past or he that is to come, has attained, or will attain, to perfect Wisdom. Less than half a yojana from this to the south-west will bring you to the patra¹ tree, where all past Buddhas have attained, and all to come must attain, to perfect Wisdom. When they had spoken these words, they immediately led the way forwards to the place, singing as they did so. As they thus went away, the Bodhisattva arose and walked (after them). At a distance of thirty paces from the tree, a deva gave him the grass of lucky omen², which he received and went on. After (he had proceeded) fifteen paces, 500 green birds came flying towards him, went round him thrice, and disappeared. The Bodhisattva went forward to the patra tree, placed the kuśa grass at the foot of it, and sat down with his face to the east. Then king Māra sent three beautiful young ladies, who came from the north, to tempt him, while he himself came from the south to do the same. The Bodhisattva put his toes down on the ground and the demon soldiers retired and dispersed, and the three young ladies were changed into old (grand) mothers³.

At the place mentioned above of the six years painful austerities and at all these other places men subsequently reared topes and set up images which all exist at the present day.

Where Buddha after attaining to perfect wisdom, for seven days contemplated the tree, and experienced the joy of vimukti⁴, where, under

¹ Called the tree of leaves and the tree of reflection a palm tree the *borassus flabellifera* described as a tree which never loses its leaves. It is often confounded with the pippala. E. H. p. 92

² The kuśa grass, mentioned in a previous note

³ See the account of this contest with Māra in M. B., pp. 171-179 and
⁴ Buddhist Birth Stories, pp. 96-101

⁵ See note 2 p. 38



the patra tree he walked backwards and forwards from west to east for seven days, where the devas made a hall appear, composed of the seven precious substances, and presented offerings to him for seven days, where the blind dragon Muchilinda¹ encircled him for seven days, where he sat under the nyagrodha tree, on a square rock with his face to the east, and Brahma deva² came and made his request to him, where the four deva kings brought to him their alms bowls³, where the 500 merchants⁴ presented to him the roasted flour and honey, and where he converted the brothers Kaśyapa and their thousand disciples⁵,—at all these places topes were reared

At the place where Buddha attained to perfect Wisdom, there are three monasteries, in all of which there are monks residing. The families of their people around supply the societies of these monks with an abundant sufficiency of what they require, so that there is no lack or stint⁶. The disciplinary rules are strictly observed by them. The laws regulating their demeanour in sitting, rising, and entering when the others are assembled, are those which have been practised by all the saints since

¹ Called also Mahā or the Great Muchilinda. Estel says 'A nāga king the tutelary deity of a lake near which Śākyamuni once sat for seven days absorbed in meditation whilst the king guarded him. The account (p. 35) in 'The Life of the Buddha' is — 'Buddha went to where lived the nāga king Muchilinda and he, wishing to preserve him from the sun and rain wrapped his body seven times round him and spread out his hood over his head, and there he remained seven days in thought. So also the Nidāna Kathā in 'Buddhist Birth Stories' p. 109

² This was Brahmā himself, though king is omitted. What he requested of the Buddha was that he would begin the preaching of his Law. Nidāna Kathā p. 111

³ See note 4 p. 35

⁴ The other accounts mention only two, but in M. B., p. 182, and the Nidāna Kathā p. 110 these two have 500 well laden waggon with them

⁵ These must not be confounded with Mahākāśyapa of note 5 p. 45. They were three brothers, Uruvilvā, Gayā and Nadi Kāśyapa up to this time holders of 'erroneous views having 500, 300, and 200 disciples respectively. They became distinguished followers of Śākyamuni, and are—each of them—to become Buddha by and by. See the Nidāna Kathā, pp. 114, 115

⁶ This seems to be the meaning, but I do not wonder that some understand the sentence of the benevolence of the monkish population to the travellers.

Buddha was in the world down to the present day. The places of the four great tope have been fixed and handed down without break since Buddha attained to pari nirvāṇa. Those four great tope are those at the places where Buddha was born, where he attained to Wisdom, where he (began to) move the wheel of his Law, and where he attained to pari nirvāṇa.

CHAPTER XXXII

LEGEND OF KING AŚOKA IN A FORMER BIRTH, AND HIS
NARAKA

WHEN King Aśoka in a former birth¹ was a little boy and playing on the road, he met Kāśyapa Buddha walking. (The stranger) begged food and the boy pleasantly took a handful of earth and gave it to him. The Buddha took the earth and returned it to the ground on which he was walking, but because of this (the boy) received the recompense of becoming a king of the iron wheel², to rule over Jambudvīpa. (Once) when he was making a judicial tour of inspection through Jambudvīpa, he saw, between the iron circuit of the two hills a naraka³ for the punishment of wicked men. Having thereupon asked his ministers what sort of a thing it was they replied, It belongs to Yama⁴ king of

¹ Here is an instance of 昔 used as was pointed out in note 3 page 30 for a former age and not merely a former time. Perhaps 'a former birth' is the best translation. The Korean reading of ka yapa Buddha is certainly preferable to the Chinese 'Śākya Buddha.'

² See note 3 p. 49.

³ I prefer to retain the Sanskrit term here instead of translating the Chinese text by Earth's prison (地獄) or 'a prison in the earth' the name which has been adopted generally by Christian missionaries in China for gehenna and hell.

⁴ Eitel (p. 173) says — Yama was originally the Aryan god of the dead living in a heaven above the world, the regent of the south but Brahmanism transferred his abode to hell. Both views have been retained by Buddhism. The Yama of the text is the regent of the narakas residing south of Jambudvīpa outside the Chakravāṭa (the double circuit of mountains above) in a palace built of brass and iron. He has a sister who controls all the female culprits as

demons for punishing wicked people' The king thought within himself — '(Even) the king of demons is able to make a naraka in which to deal with wicked men, why should not I, who am the lord of men, make a naraka in which to deal with wicked men?' He forthwith asked his ministers who could make for him a naraka and preside over the punishment of wicked people in it. They replied that it was only a man of extreme wickedness who could make it, and the king thereupon sent officers to seek everywhere for (such) a bad man, and they saw by the side of a pond a man tall and strong, with a black countenance, yellow hair, and green eyes hooking up the fish with his feet, while he called to him birds and beasts and, when they came, then shot and killed them, so that not one escaped. Having got this man, they took him to the king who secretly charged him, 'You must make a square enclosure with high walls. Plant in it all kinds of flowers and fruits, make good ponds in it for bathing, make it grand and imposing in every way so that men shall look to it with thirsting desire, make its gates strong and sure, and when any one enters instantly seize him and punish him as a sinner, not allowing him to get out. Even if I should enter, punish me as a sinner in the same way, and do not let me go. I now appoint you master of that naraka.

Soon after this a bhikshu, pursuing his regular course of begging his food entered the gate (of the place). When the lictors of the naraka saw him, they were about to subject him to their tortures, but he, frightened begged them to allow him a moment in which to eat his midday meal. Immediately after, there came in another man, whom they thrust into a mortar and pounded till a red froth overflowed. As the bhikshu looked on there came to him the thought of the impermanence, the painful suffering and inanity of this body, and how it is but as a bubble and as foam and instantly he attained to Arhatship. Immediately after, the lictors seized him and threw him into a caldron of

he exclusively deals with the male sex. Three times however in every twenty-four hours a demon pours boiling copper in o Yama's mouth and squeezes it down his throat, causing him unspeakable pain. Such however is the wonderful transrotation of births that when Yama's sins have been expiated he is to be reborn as Buddha, under the name of The Universal King.

boiling water. There was a look of joyful satisfaction however, in the bhikshu's countenance. The fire was extinguished, and the water became cold. In the middle (of the caldron) there rose up a lotus flower, with the bhikshu seated on it. The victors at once went and reported to the king that there was a marvellous occurrence in the naraka and wished him to go and see it. but the king said, 'I formerly made such an agreement that now I dare not go (to the place). The victors said, 'This is not a small matter. Your majesty ought to go quickly. Let your former agreement be altered. The king thereupon followed them and entered (the naraka) when the bhikshu preached the Law to him, and he believed and was made free'. Forthwith he demolished the naraka and repented of all the evil which he had formerly done. From this time he believed in and honoured the Three Precious Ones, and constantly went to a patra tree, repenting under it, with self reproach of his errors, and accepting the eight rules of abstinence¹.

The queen asked where the king was constantly going to, and the ministers replied that he was constantly to be seen under (such and such) a patra tree. She watched for a time when the king was not there, and then sent men to cut the tree down. When the king came, and saw what had been done, he swooned away with sorrow and fell to the ground. His ministers sprinkled water on his face, and after a considerable time he revived. He then built all round (the stump) with bricks and poured a hundred pitchers of cows' milk on the roots, and as he lay with his four limbs spread out on the ground, he took this oath, 'If the tree do not live I will never rise from this.' When he had uttered this oath, the tree immediately began to grow from the roots, and it has continued to grow till now when it is nearly 100 cubits in height.

CHAPTER XXXIII

MOUNT GURUPADA, WHERE KĀŚYAPA BUDDHA'S ENTIRE SKELETON IS

(THE travellers) going on from this three le to the south came to a mountain named Gurupada², inside which Mahākāśyapa even

¹ Or 'was loosed, from the bonds I suppose of his various illusions.

² I have not met with this particular numerical category

³ Fowl's foot hill, with three peaks resembling the foot of a chicken. It lies

now is. He made a cleft, and went down into it, though the place where he entered would not (now) admit a man. Having gone down very far, there was a hole on one side, and there the complete body of Kāśyapa (still) abides. Outside the hole (at which he entered) is the earth with which he had washed his hands¹. If the people living thereabouts have a sore on their heads, they plaster on it some of the earth from this, and feel immediately easier². On this mountain now as of old, there are Arhats abiding. Devotees of our Law from the various countries in that quarter go year by year to the mountain, and present offerings to Kāśyapa, and to those whose hearts are strong in faith there come Arhats at night, and talk with them, discussing and explaining their doubts and disappearing suddenly afterwards.

On this hill hazels grow luxuriantly, and there are many lions, tigers, and wolves, so that people should not travel incautiously.

CHAPTER XXXIV

ON THE WAY BACK TO PATNA. VĀRĀNASĪ, OR BENĀRES ŚĀKYA-MUNIS FIRST DOINGS AFTER BECOMING BUDDHA.

FĀ HIEN³ returned (from here) towards Pāṭaliputra⁴ keeping along the course of the Ganges and descending in the direction of the west.

seven miles south-east of Gayā and was the residence of Mahākāśyapa who is said to be still living inside this mountain. So Etel says p 58 but this chapter does not say that Kāśyapa is in the mountain alive but that his body entire is in a recess or hole in it. Hardy (M B p 97) says that after Kāśyapa Buddha's body was burnt, the bones still remained in their usual position, presenting the appearance of a perfect skeleton. It is of him that the chapter speaks and not of the famous disciple of Śākyamuni who also is called Mahākāśyapa. This will appear also on a comparison of Etel's articles on 'Mahākāśyapa' and 'Kāśyapa Buddha'.

¹ Was it a custom to wash the hands with earth, as is often done with sand?

² This I conceive to be the meaning here.

³ Fā hien is here mentioned singly as in the account of his visit to the cave on Gṛdhra kṛta. I think that Tāo-chung may have remained at Patna after their first visit to it.

⁴ See note 1 p 77

After going ten yojanas he found a vihára, named 'The Wilderness'—a place where Buddha had dwelt, and where there are monks now

Pursuing the same course, and going still to the west, he arrived, after twelve yojanas at the city of Virinasi¹ in the kingdom of Kāśī. Rather more than ten le to the north east of the city he found the vihára in the park of 'The rishi's Deer wild'.² In this park there formerly resided a Pratyeka Buddha³ with whom the deer were regularly in the habit of stopping for the night. When the World honoured one was about to attain to perfect Wisdom the devas sang in the sky 'The son of king Śuddhodana, having quitted his family and studied the Path (of Wisdom)⁴ will now in seven days become Buddha'. The Pratyeka Buddha heard their words and immediately attained to nirvāna, and hence this place was named 'The Park of the rishi's Deer wild'. After the World honoured one had attained to perfect Wisdom, men built the vihára in it.

Buddha wished to convert Kaundinya⁵ and his four companions, but

¹ 'The city surrounded by rivers, the modern Benáres, lat 25 23 N lon 83° 5' E

² 'The rishi, says Eitel, 'is a man whose bodily frame has undergone a certain transformation by dint of meditation and asceticism so that he is for an indefinite period exempt from decrepitude age and death. As this period is believed to extend far beyond the usual duration of human life such persons are called, and popularly believed to be, immortals. Rishis are divided into various classes, and rishi-ism is spoken of as a seventh path of transrotation, and rishis are referred to as the seventh class of sentient beings. Taoism as well as Buddhism has its Seen jin.

³ See note 2, p. 40

⁴ See note 4 p. 64

⁵ For another legend about this park, and the identification with a fine wood still existing see note in Beal's first version p. 135

⁶ A prince of Magadha and a maternal uncle of Śakyamuni who gave him the name of Ajāta meaning automat and hence he often appears as Ajāta Kaundinya. He and his four friends had followed Śakyamuni into the Uruvilva desert sympathising with him in the austerities he endured and hoping that they would issue in his Buddhahip. They were not aware that that issue had come which may show us that all the accounts in the thirty first chapter

they, (being aware of his intention) said to one another, This Sramana Gotama¹ for six years continued in the practice of painful austerities eating daily (only) a single hemp seed, and one grain of rice, without attaining to the Path (of Wisdom) how much less will he do so now that he has entered (again) among men and is giving the reins to (the indulgence of) his body, his speech, and his thoughts! What has he to do with the Path (of Wisdom)? To-day, when he comes to us let us be on our guard not to speak with him. At the places where the five men all rose up and respectfully saluted (Buddha) when he came to them where sixty paces north from this he sat with his face to the east, and first turned the wheel of the Law converting Kaundinya and the four others, where

are merely descriptions by means of external imagery of what had taken place internally. The kingdom of nirvāṇa had come without observation. These friends knew it not and they were offended by what they considered Śākyamuni's failure and the course he was now pursuing. See the account of their conversion in M II p 186

¹ This is the only instance in Fa hien's text where the Bodhisattva or Buddha is called by the surname Gotama. For the most part our traveller uses Buddha as a proper name though it properly means The Enlightened. He uses also the combinations Śākya Buddha = The Buddha of the Śākya tribe and Śākya muni = The Śākya sage. This last is the most common designation of the Buddha in China and to my mind best combines the characteristics of a descriptive and a proper name. Among other Buddhist peoples Gotama and Gotama Buddha are the more frequent designations. It is not easy to account for the rise of the surname Gotama in the Śākya family, as Oldenberg acknowledges. He says that 'the Śākyas, in accordance with the custom of Indian noble families had borrowed it from one of the ancient Vedic bard families. Dr Davids (*Buddhism* p 27) says 'The family name was certainly Gautama, adding in a note It is a curious fact that Gautama is still the family name of the Rajput chiefs of Nagara the village which has been identified with Kapilavastu. Dr Eitel says that Gautama was the sacerdotal name of the Śākya family which counted the ancient ṛishi Gautama among its ancestors. When we proceed however to endeavour to trace the connexion of that Brahmanical ṛishi with the Śākya house by means of 1323 1468 1469 and other historical works in Nanjio's Catalogue we soon find that Indian histories have no surer foundation than the shifting sand —see E II on the name Śākya pp 108 109. We must be content for the present simply to accept Gotama as one of the surnames of the Buddha with whom we have to do

twenty paces further to the north, he delivered his prophecy concerning Maitreya¹, and where, at a distance of fifty paces to the south, the dragon Elāpattra² asked him, 'When shall I get free from this nāga body? —at all these places topes were reared, and are still existing In (the park) there are two monasteries in both of which there are monks residing

When you go north west from the vihāra of the Deer wild park for thirteen yojanas, there is a kingdom named Kausāmbī³ Its vihāra is named Ghochiravana⁴—a place where Buddha formerly resided Now, as of old, there is a company of monks there, most of whom are students of the hinayāna

East from (this), when you have travelled eight yojanas is the place where Buddha converted⁵ the evil demon There, and where he walked (in meditation) and sat at the place which was his regular abode, there have been topes erected There is also a monastery, which may contain more than a hundred monks

CHAPTER XXXV

DAKSHINA, AND THE PIGEON MONASTERY

SOUTH from this 200 yojanas, there is a country named Dakshina⁶, where there is a monastery (dedicated to) the bygone Kāśyapa Buddha,

¹ See note 3 p 25 It is there said that the prediction of Maitreya's succession to the Buddhahip was made to him in the Tushita heaven Was there a repetition of it here in the Deer park, or was a prediction now given concerning something else?

² Nothing seem to be known of this nāga but what we read here

³ Identified by some with Kusia near Kurrah (lat. 25° 41' N., lon 81 27' E.) by others with Kosam on the Jumna thirty miles above Allahabad See E H p 55

⁴ Ghochira was the name of a Vaisya elder or head who presented a garden and vihāra to Buddha Hardy (M B, p 356) quotes a statement from a Singhalese authority that Śākyamuni resided here during the ninth year of his Buddhahip

⁵ Dr Davids thinks this may refer to the striking and beautiful story of the conversion of the Yakkha Ālavaka as related in the Uragavagga, Ālavakasutta, pp 29-31 (Sacred Books of the East, vol. x part u)

⁶ Said to be the ancient name for the Deccan. As to the various marvels in the chapter it must be borne in mind that our author as he tells us at the end, only gives them from hearsay See 'Buddhist Records of the Western World, vol II pp 214 215 where the description however, is very different

and which has been hewn out from a large hill of rock : It consists in all of five storeys,—the lowest, having the form of an elephant, with 500 apartments in the rock, the second, having the form of a lion with 400 apartments, the third, having the form of a horse, with 300 apartments, the fourth, having the form of an ox with 200 apartments, and the fifth, having the form of a pigeon, with 100 apartments. At the very top there is a spring the water of which always in front of the apartments in the rock goes round among the rooms now circling, now curving, till in this way it arrives at the lowest storey having followed the shape of the structure, and flows out there at the door. Everywhere in the apartments of the monks the rock has been pierced so as to form windows for the admission of light, so that they are all bright without any being left in darkness. At the four corners of the (tiers of) apartments, the rock has been hewn so as to form steps for ascending to the top (of each). The men of the present day, being of small size, and going up step by step, manage to get to the top, but in a former age they did so at one step¹. Because of this, the monastery is called Paravata, that being the Indian name for a pigeon. There are always Arhats residing in it.

The country about is (a tract of) uncultivated hillocks², without inhabitants. At a very long distance from the hill there are villages where the people all have bad and erroneous views, and do not know the Śramanas of the Law of Buddha Brāhmanas or (devotees of) any of the other and different schools. The people of that country are constantly seeing men on the wing, who come and enter this monastery. On one occasion, when devotees of various countries came to perform their worship at it, the people of those villages said to them 'Why do you not fly? The devotees whom we have seen hereabouts all fly, and the strangers answered, on the spur of the moment. Our wings are not yet fully formed.

The kingdom of Dakshina is out of the way, and perilous to traverse. There are difficulties in connexion with the roads, but those who know

¹ Compare the account of Buddha's great stride of fifteen yojanas in Ceylon as related in chapter xxxviii.

² See the same phrase in the Books of the Later Han dynasty, the twenty-fourth Book of Biographies p. 9 b.

how to manage such difficulties and wish to proceed should bring with them money and various articles, and give them to the king. He will then send men to escort them. These will (at different stages) pass them over to others who will show them the shortest routes. Fā hien, however, was after all unable to go there, but having received the (above) accounts from men of the country, he has narrated them.

CHAPTER XXXVI

IN PATNA FĀ HIEN'S LABOURS IN TRANSCRIPTION OF MANU SCRIPTS AND INDIAN STUDIES FOR THREE YEARS

FROM Vārāṇasī (the travellers) went back east to Pāṭaliputra. Fā hien's original object had been to search for (copies of) the Vinaya. In the various kingdoms of North India, however, he had found one master transmitting orally (the rules) to another, but no written copies which he could transcribe. He had therefore travelled far and come on to Central India. Here, in the mahāyāna monastery¹, he found a copy of the Vinaya containing the Mahāśāṅghika² rules,—those which were observed in the first Great Council, while Buddha was still in the world. The original copy was handed down in the Jetavana vihāra. As to the other eighteen schools³, each one has the views and decisions of its own masters.

¹ Mentioned before in chapter xxvii.

² Mahāśāṅghikā simply means 'the Great Assembly' that is of monks. When was this first assembly in the time of Śākyamuni held? It does not appear that the rules observed at it were written down at the time. The document found by Fa hien would be a record of those rules, or rather a copy of that record. We must suppose that the original record had disappeared from the Jetavana vihāra, or Fā hien would probably have spoken of it when he was there and copied it if he had been allowed to do so.

³ The eighteen pū (𑖔𑖑𑖥). Four times in this chapter the character called pū occurs and in the first and two last instances it can only have the meaning, often belonging to it of 'copy'. The second instance however, is different. How should there be eighteen copies all different from the original and from one another in minor matters? We are compelled to translate—the eighteen schools,

Those agree (with this) in the general meaning, but they have small and trivial differences, as when one opens and another shuts¹. This copy (of the rules) however, is the most complete, with the fullest explanations².

He further got a transcript of the rules in six or seven thousand gāthas³ being the sarvāstivādāh⁴ rules,—those which are observed by the communities of monks in the land of Ts'in, which also have all been handed down orally from master to master without being committed to writing. In the community here, moreover, he got the Samyuktābhidharma hridaya-(śāstra)⁵, containing about six or seven thousand gāthas, he also got a Sūtra of 2500 gāthas, one chapter of the Parinirvāna vaipulya Sūtra⁶, of about 5000 gāthas, and the Mahāsānghikāh Abhidharma.

In consequence (of this success in his quest) Fā hien stayed here for three years, learning Sanskrit books and the Sanskrit speech, and writing out the Vinaya rules. When Tāo ching arrived in the Central Kingdom, and saw the rules observed by the Śramanas, and the dignified demeanour in their societies which he remarked under all occurring circumstances, he sadly called to mind in what a mutilated and imperfect condition the rules were among the monkish communities in the land of Ts'in, and made the following aspiration — 'From this time forth till I come to the

an expression well known in all Buddhist writings. See Rhys Davids Manual p 218, and the authorities there quoted.

¹ This is equivalent to the 'binding and 'loosing' 'opening and 'shutting,' which found their way into the New Testament, and the Christian Church from the schools of the Jewish Rabbins.

² It was afterwards translated by Fā hien into Chinese. See Nanjio's Catalogue of the Chinese Tripiṭaka, columns 400 and 401 and Nos. 1119 and 1150, columns 247 and 253.

³ A gāthā is a stanza generally consisting it has seemed to me of a few, commonly of two, lines somewhat metrically arranged but I do not know that its length is strictly defined.

⁴ A branch' says Etel 'of the great vaibhāṣika school, asserting the reality of all visible phenomena and claiming the authority of Rāhula.

⁵ See Nanjio's Catalogue No 1287. He does not mention it in his account of Fā hien who, he says translated the Samyukta piṭaka Sūtra.

⁶ Probably Nanjio's Catalogue, No 120 at any rate connected with it.

state of Buddha, let me not be born in a frontier land¹ He remained accordingly (in India) and did not return (to the land of Han) Fā hien, however, whose original purpose had been to secure the introduction of the complete Vinaya rules into the land of Han, returned there alone.

CHAPTER XXXVII

TO CHAMPĀ AND TĀMALIPTĪ STAY AND LABOURS THERE FOR
THREE YEARS TAKES SHIP TO SINGHALA, OR CEYLON

FOLLOWING the course of the Ganges, and descending eastwards for eighteen *yojanas*, he found on the southern bank the great kingdom of Champā², with *topes* reared at the places where Buddha walked in meditation by his *vihāra* and where he and the three Buddhas, his predecessors, sat. There were monks residing at them all. Continuing his journey east for nearly fifty *yojanas*, he came to the country of Tāmaliptī³, (the capital of which is) a seaport. In the country there are twenty two monasteries, at all of which there are monks residing. The Law of Buddha is also flourishing in it. Here Fā hien stayed two years writing out his *Sūtras*⁴, and drawing pictures of images.

After this he embarked in a large merchant vessel, and went floating over the sea to the south west. It was the beginning of winter, and the wind was favourable, and, after fourteen days, sailing day and night, they came to the country of Singhala⁵. The people said that it was distant (from Tāmaliptī) about 700 *yojanas*.

¹ This then would be the consummation of the Śramana's being—to get to be Buddha the Buddha of his time in his Kalpa, and Tāo-chung thought that he could attain to this consummation by a succession of births, and was likely to attain to it sooner by living only in India. If all this was not in his mind he yet felt that each of his successive lives would be happier, if lived in India.

² Probably the modern Champanagar three miles west of Baglipoor lat. 25° 14' N lon 96° 55' E.

³ Then the principal emporium for the trade with Ceylon and China, the modern Tam look, lat. 22° 17' N., lon 88° 2' E., near the mouth of the Hoogly.

⁴ Perhaps Ching (經) is used here for any portions of the Tripiṭaka which he had obtained.

⁵ The Kingdom of the Lion Ceylon Singhala was the name of a

The kingdom is on a large island, extending from east to west fifty rojanas, and from north to south thirty. Left and right from it there are as many as 100 small islands, distant from one another ten, twenty or even 200 le, but all subject to the large island. Most of them produce pearls and precious stones of various kinds, there is one which produces the pure and brilliant pearl¹,—an island which would form a square of about ten le. The king employs men to watch and protect it and requires three out of every ten such pearls, which the collectors find.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE CEYLON RISE OF THE KINGDOM FEATS OF BUDDHA TOPES
AND MONASTERIES STATUE OF BUDDHA IN JADE. BO TREE
FESTIVAL OF BUDDHA'S TOOTH

THE country originally had no human inhabitants² but was occupied only by spirits and nāgas with which merchants of various countries carried on a trade. When the trafficking was taking place, the spirits did not show themselves. They simply set forth their precious commodities, with labels of the price attached to them, while the merchants made their purchases according to the price, and took the things away.

Through the coming and going of the merchants (in this way) when they went away, the people of (their) various countries heard how pleasant the land was, and flocked to it in numbers till it became a

merchant adventurer from India, to whom the founding of the kingdom was ascribed. His father was named Singha, the Lion, which became the name of the country,—Singhala or Singha Kingdom, 'the Country of the Lion'

¹ Called the mani pearl or bead. Mani is explained as meaning free from stain, bright and growing purer. It is a symbol of Buddha and of his Law. The most valuable rosaries are made of manis.

² It is desirable to translate 人民 for which inhabitants or 'people' is elsewhere sufficient, here by human inhabitants. According to other accounts Singhala was originally occupied by Rākshasas or Rakshas demons who devour men, and 'beings to be feared' monstrous cannibals or anthropophagists, the terror of the shipwrecked mariner. Our author's 'spirits' (鬼神) were of a gentler type. His dragons or nāgas have come before us again and again.

great nation. The (climate) is temperate and attractive without any difference of summer and winter. The vegetation is always luxuriant. Cultivation proceeds whenever men think fit: there are no fixed seasons for it.

When Buddha came to this country¹, wishing to transform the wicked *nāgas*, by his supernatural power he planted one foot at the north of the royal city and the other on the top of a mountain², the two being fifteen *yojanas* apart. Over the footprint at the north of the city the king built a large tope 400 cubits high, grandly adorned with gold and silver, and finished with a combination of all the precious substances. By the side of the tope he further built a monastery, called the Abhayagiri³, where there are (now) five thousand monks. There is in it a hall of Buddha, adorned with carved and inlaid work of gold and silver, and rich in the seven precious substances, in which there is an image (of Buddha) in green jade, more than twenty cubits in height, glittering all over with those substances, and having an appearance of solemn dignity which words cannot express. In the palm of the right hand there is a priceless pearl. Several years had now elapsed since Fā hien left the land of Han, the

¹ That Śākyamuni ever visited Ceylon is to me more than doubtful. Hardy, in *M. B.*, pp 207-213 has brought together the legends of three visits,—in the first, fifth, and eighth years of his Buddhahip. It is plain, however, from Fā hien's narrative that in the beginning of our fifth century, Buddhism prevailed throughout the island. Davids in the last chapter of his *Buddhism* ascribes its introduction to one of Aśoka's missions after the Council of Patna, under his son Mahinda when Tissa, the delight of the gods, was king (a. d. 250-230).

² This would be what is known as 'Adam's peak' having according to Hardy (pp 211, 212, notes) the three names of Selesumano Samastakūta, and Samanila. 'There is an indentation on the top of it a superficial hollow 5 feet 3½ inches long and about 2½ feet wide. The Hindus regard it as the footprint of Śiva the Mohammedans, as that of Adam, and the Buddhists, as in the text,—as having been made by Buddha.

³ Meaning 'The Fearless Hill'. There is still the Abhayagiri tope, the highest in Ceylon, according to Davids 250 feet in height and built about B. C. 90, by Vāṣṭa Gāmaṇī, in whose reign about 160 years after the Council of Patna and 330 years after the death of Śākyamuni the Tripiṭaka was first reduced writing in Ceylon — *Buddhism*, p. 224.

men with whom he had been in intercourse had all been of regions strange to him, his eyes had not rested on an old and familiar hill or river, plant or tree his fellow travellers, moreover, had been separated from him, some by death, and others flowing off in different directions, no face or shadow was now with him but his own and a constant sadness was in his heart. Suddenly (one day) when by the side of this image of jade, he saw a merchant presenting as his offering a fan of white silk¹, and the tears of sorrow involuntarily filled his eyes and fell down

A former king of the country had sent to Central India and got a slip of the patra tree², which he planted by the side of the hall of Buddha, where a tree grew up to the height of about 200 cubits. As it bent on one side towards the south east, the king fearing it would fall, propped it with a post eight or nine spans round. The tree began to grow at the very heart of the prop where it met (the trunk) (a shoot) pierced through the post and went down to the ground where it entered and formed roots that rose (to the surface) and were about four spans round. Although the post was split in the middle the outer portions kept

¹ We naturally suppose that the merchant offerer was a Chinese as indeed the Chinese texts say and the fan such as Fā hien had seen and used in his native land

² This should be the pippala, or bodhidruma generally spoken of in connexion with Buddha as the B tree, under which he attained to the Buddhahood. It is strange our author should have confounded them as he seems to do. In what we are told of the tree here we have, no doubt his account of the planting, growth and preservation of the famous Bo tree which still exists in Ceylon. It has been stated in a previous note that Asoka's son Mahinda went as the apostle of Buddhism to Ceylon. By and by he sent for his sister Sanghamitā who had entered the order at the same time as himself and whose help was needed some of the king's female relations having signified their wish to become nuns. On leaving India she took with her a branch of the sacred Bo tree at Buddha Gayā under which Śākyamuni had become Buddha. Of how the tree has grown and still lives we have an account in Davids' Buddhism. He quotes the words of Sir Emerson Tennent that it is the oldest historical tree in the world, but this must be denied if it be true as Eitel says, that the tree at Buddha Gayā, from which the slip that grew to be this tree was taken more than 2000 years ago is itself still living in its place. We might conclude that Fa hien, when in Ceylon heard neither of Mahinda nor Sanghamitā.

hold (of the shoot), and people did not remove them. Beneath the tree there has been built a vihâra, in which there is an image (of Buddha) seated which the monks and commonalty reverence and look up to without ever becoming wearied. In the city there has been reared also the vihâra of Buddha's tooth, on which, as well as on the other, the seven precious substances have been employed.

The king practises the Brahmanical purifications and the sincerity of the faith and reverence of the population inside the city are also great. Since the establishment of government in the kingdom there has been no famine or scarcity, no revolution or disorder. In the treasuries of the monkish communities there are many precious stones, and the priceless manis. One of the kings (once) entered one of those treasuries, and when he looked all round and saw the priceless pearls, his covetous greed was excited, and he wished to take them to himself by force. In three days, however, he came to himself, and immediately went and bowed his head to the ground in the midst of the monks, to show his repentance of the evil thought. As a sequel to this, he informed the monks (of what had been in his mind), and desired them to make a regulation that from that day forth the king should not be allowed to enter the treasury and see (what it contained) and that no bhikshu should enter it till after he had been in orders for a period of full forty years¹.

In the city there are many Vaisya elders and Sabæan² merchants, whose houses are stately and beautiful. The lanes and passages are kept in good order. At the heads of the four principal streets there have been built preaching halls where on the eighth, fourteenth, and fifteenth days of the month, they spread carpets, and set forth a pulpit, while the monks and commonalty from all quarters come together to hear the Law. The people say that in the kingdom there may be altogether sixty thousand monks who get their food from their common stores.

¹ Compare what is said in chap. xvi. about the inquiries made at monasteries as to the standing of visitors in the monkhood and duration of their ministry.

² The phonetic values of the two Chinese characters here are in Sanskrit *śā* and *vā* *bo* or *bhā*. Sabæan is Mr. Beal's reading of them probably correct. I suppose the merchants were Arabs forerunners of the so-called Moormen who still form so important a part of the mercantile community in Ceylon.

The king besides, prepares elsewhere in the city a common supply of food for five or six thousand more. When any want, they take their great bowls and go (to the place of distribution), and take as much as the vessels will hold, all returning with them full.

The tooth of Buddha is always brought forth in the middle of the third month. Ten days beforehand the king grandly caparisons a large elephant, on which he mounts a man who can speak distinctly, and is dressed in royal robes to beat a large drum, and make the following proclamation — 'The Bodhisattva, during three Asankhyeya kalpas¹, manifested his activity, and did not spare his own life. He gave up kingdom, city, wife, and son, he plucked out his eyes and gave them to another², he cut off a piece of his flesh to ransom the life of a dove³, he cut off his head and gave it as an alms⁴, he gave his body to feed a starving tigress⁵, he grudged not his marrow and brains. In many such ways as these did he undergo pain for the sake of all living. And so it was, that, having become Buddha, he continued in the world for forty five years preaching his Law, teaching and transforming, so that those who had no rest found rest and the unconverted were converted. When his connexion with the living was completed⁶, he attained to *arī nirvāṇa* (and died). Since that event, for 1497 years, the light of the world has gone out⁷, and all living beings have had long-continued sadness. Behold! ten days after this, Buddha's tooth will be brought forth, and taken to the *Abhayagiri vihāra*. Let all and each, whether

¹ A Kalpa, we have seen denotes a great period of time, a period during which a physical universe is formed and destroyed. Asankhyeya denotes the highest sum for which a conventional term exists,—according to Chinese calculations equal to one followed by seventeen ciphers, according to Tibetan and Singhalese, equal to one followed by ninety seven ciphers. Every Mahā kalpa consists of four Asankhyeya kalpas. *Etel* ¶ 15

² See chapter ix.

³ See chapter xi.

⁴ He had been born in the Śākya house to do for the world what the character of all his past births required, and he had done it.

⁵ They could no more see him, the World honoured one. Compare the *Sacred Books of the East*, vol. xi *Buddhist Suttas* pp 89 121 and note on p 89

monks or laics, who wish to amass merit for themselves, make the roads smooth and in good condition grandly adorn the lanes and by ways, and provide abundant store of flowers and incense to be used as offerings to it

When this proclamation is over, the king exhibits so as to line both sides of the road the five hundred different bodily forms in which the Bodhisattva has in the course of his history appeared — here is Sudāna¹, there as Sāma, now as the king of elephants², and then as a stag or a horse³. All these figures are brightly coloured and grandly executed, looking as if they were alive. After this the tooth of Buddha is brought forth, and is carried along in the middle of the road. Everywhere on the way offerings are presented to it, and thus it arrives at the hall of Buddha in the Abhayagiri vihāra. There monks and laics are

¹ Sudana or Sudatta was the name of the Bodhisattva in the birth which preceded his appearance as Śākyamuni or Gotama, when he became the Supreme Buddha. This period is known as the Vessantara Jātaka of which Hardy M B, pp 116-124 gives a long account see also Buddhist Birth Stories, the Nidāna kathā p 128. In it as Sudana, he fulfilled 'the Perfections' his distinguishing attribute being entire self renunciation and alms giving so that in the Nidāna kathā he is made to say (Buddhist Birth Stories' p 158) —

'This earth unconscious though she be and ignorant of joy or grief

Even she by my free giving's mighty power was shaken seven times
Then when he passed away he appeared in the Tushita heaven, to enter in due time the womb of Mahā māyā, and be born as Śākyamuni

² I take the name Sāma from Beal's revised version. He says in a note that the Sāma Jātaka as well as the Vessantara is represented in the Sāñchi sculptures. But what the Sāma Jātaka was I do not yet know. But adopting this name, the two Chinese characters in the text should be translated 'the change into Sāma'. Rémusat gives for them la transformation en éclair. Beal in his first version his appearance as a bright flash of light, Giles as a flash of lightning, my own first version was as the changing flashes of lightning. Julien's Méthode does not give the phonetic value in Sanskrit of 睺

³ In an analysis of the number of times and the different forms in which Śākyamuni had appeared in his Jataka births given by Hardy (M B p 100), it is said that he had appeared six times as an elephant, ten times as a deer, and four times as a horse

collected in crowds - They burn incense light lamps and perform all the prescribed services, day and night without ceasing till ninety days have been completed, when (the tooth) is returned to the vihâra within the city. On fast days the door of that vihâra is opened, and the forms of ceremonial reverence are observed according to the rules.

Forty le to the east of the Abhayagiri vihâra there is a hill with a vihâra on it called the Chaitya¹ where there may be 2000 monks. Among them there is a Sramana of great virtue named Dharma gupta² honoured and looked up to by all the kingdom. He has lived for more than forty years in an apartment of stone constantly showing such gentleness of heart that he has brought snakes and rats to stop together in the same room without doing one another any harm.

CHAPTER XXXIX

CREMATION OF AN ARHAT : SERMON OF A DEVOTEE

SOUTH of the city seven le there is a vihâra, called the Mahâ vihâra, where 3000 monks reside. There had been among them a Sramana of such lofty virtue, and so holy and pure in his observance of the disciplinary rules that the people all surmised that he was an Arhat. When he drew near his end the king came to examine into the point, and having assembled the monks according to rule asked whether the bhikshu had attained to the full degree of Wisdom³. They answered in the affirmative, saying that he was an Arhat. The king accordingly when he died buried him after the fashion of an Arhat as the regular rules prescribed.

¹ Chaitya is a general term designating all places and objects of religious worship which have a reference to ancient Buddhas and including therefore Stûpas and temples as well as sacred relics, pictures statues &c. It is defined as a fane a place for worship and presenting offerings. Eitel p 141. The hill referred to is the sacred hill of Mihintale, about eight miles due east of the Bo tree.—David's Buddhism pp 230 231.

² Eitel says (p 31) A famous ascetic the founder of a school which flourished in Ceylon A.D. 400. But Fâ tien gives no intimation of Dharma gupta's founding a school.

³ Possibly and asked the bhikshu &c. I prefer the other way of construing however.

Four or five le east from the vihâra there was reared a great pile of fire wood, which might be more than thirty cubits square, and the same in height. Near the top were laid sandal, aloe, and other kinds of fragrant wood.

On the four sides (of the pile) they made steps by which to ascend it. With clean white hair-cloth, almost like silk, they wrapped (the body) round and round¹. They made a large carriage frame, in form like our funeral car, but without the dragons and fishes².

At the time of the cremation, the king and the people, in multitudes from all quarters, collected together, and presented offerings of flowers and incense. While they were following the car to the burial ground³, the king himself presented flowers and incense. When this was finished, the car was lifted on the pile all over which oil of sweet basil was poured and then a light was applied. While the fire was blazing, every one, with a reverent heart, pulled off his upper garment and threw it with his feather fan and umbrella from a distance into the midst of the flames to assist the burning. When the cremation was over, they collected and preserved the bones, and proceeded to erect a tope. Fâ hien had not arrived in time (to see the distinguished Shaman) alive, and only saw his burial.

At that time the king⁴ who was a sincere believer in the Law of Buddha and wished to build a new vihâra for the monks, first convoked a great

¹ It seems strange that this should have been understood as a wrapping of the immense pyre with the cloth. There is nothing in the text to necessitate such a version but the contrary. Compare Buddhist Suttas pp 92-93.

² See the description of a funeral car and its decorations in the Sacred Books of the East vol xxviii the Li Ki Book XIX. Fâ hien's 此間, 'in this (country)' which I have expressed by 'our' shows that whatever notes of this cremation he had taken at the time the account in the text was composed after his return to China, and when he had the usages there in his mind and perhaps before his eyes. This disposes of all difficulty occasioned by the 'dragons and fishes'. The 耳 at the end is merely the concluding particle.

³ The pyre served the purpose of a burial ground or grave, and hence our author writes of it as such.

⁴ This king must have been Maha nâna (A D 410-432). In the time of his

assembly After giving the monks a meal of rice and presenting his offerings (on the occasion), he selected a pair of first-rate oxen the horns of which were grandly decorated with gold, silver, and the precious substances. A golden plough had been provided, and the king himself turned up a furrow on the four sides of the ground within which the building was to be. He then endowed the community of the monks with the population, fields, and houses writing the grant on plates of metal, (to the effect) that from that time onwards, from generation to generation no one should venture to annul or alter it.

In this country Fā hien heard an Indian devotee, who was reciting a Sūtra from the pulpit, say — 'Buddha's alms bowl was at first in Vaiśālī, and now it is in Gandhāra¹. After 30 many hundred years' (he gave, when Fā hien heard him the exact number of years, but he has forgotten it), 'it will go to Western Tukhāra², after so many hundred years to Khoten, after so many hundred years, to Kharachar³, after so many hundred years to the land of Han, after so many hundred years it will come to Sinhala, and after so many hundred years it will return to Central India. After that it will ascend to the Tushita heaven, and when the Bodhisattva Maitreya sees it, he will say with a sigh, 'The alms bowl of Śākyamuni Buddha is come' and with all the devas he will present to it flowers and incense for seven days. When these have expired, it will return to Jambudvīpa where it will be received by the king of the sea nāgas and taken into his nāga palace. When Maitreya shall be about to attain to perfect Wisdom (and become Buddha), it will again separate into four bowls⁴, which will return to the top of mount Anna⁴, whence they came. After Maitreya has become

predecessor, Upatissa (A D 368-410) the pitakas were first translated into Singhalese. Under Mahā nāna, Buddhaghosha wrote his commentaries. Both were great builders of vihāras. See the Mahāvagga, pp 247, foll.

¹ See chapter xii. Fā hien had seen it at Purushapura which Eitel says was 'the ancient capital of Gandhāra.

² Western Tukhāra (西 肢) is the same probably as the Tukhāra (肢) of chapter xii a king of which is there described as trying to carry off the bowl from Purushapura.

³ North of the Bosteng lake at the foot of the Thien shan range (E. H. p 56)

⁴ See note 3 p 35. Instead of Anna⁴ the Chinese recensions have Vīna,

them into the water Fâ hien also took his pitcher¹ and washing basin, with some other articles, and cast them into the sea, but fearing that the merchants would cast overboard his books and images, he could only think with all his heart of Kwan she yin², and commit his life to (the protection of) the church of the land of Han³, (saying in effect), 'I have travelled far in search of our Law Let me, by your dread and supernatural (power), return from my wanderings, and reach my resting place!'

In this way the tempest⁴ continued day and night, till on the thirteenth day the ship was carried to the side of an island, where, on the ebbing of the tide, the place of the leak was discovered and it was stopped, on which the voyage was resumed On the sea (hereabouts) there are many pirates, to meet with whom is speedy death The great ocean spreads out, a boundless expanse There is no knowing east or west, only by observing the sun, moon, and stars was it possible to go forward If the weather were dark and rainy, (the ship) went as she was carried by the wind, without any definite course In the darkness of the night, only the great waves were to be seen, breaking on one another, and emitting a brightness like that of fire, with huge turtles and other monsters of the deep (all about) The merchants were full of terror, not knowing where they were going The sea was deep and bottomless, and there was no place where they could drop anchor and stop But when the sky became clear, they could tell east and west, and (the ship) again went forward in

¹ We have in the text a phonetisation of the Sanskrit *Kundikâ* which is explained in Eitel by the two characters that follow as= washing basin, but two things evidently are intended

² See note 5 p 46

³ At his novitiate Fa hien had sought the refuge of the 'three Precious Ones (the three Refuges [三歸] of last chapter) of which the congregation or body of the monks was one, and here his thoughts turn naturally to the branch of it in China His words in his heart were not exactly words of prayer, but very nearly so

⁴ In the text 大風 *tâ fung* the great wind, =the typhoon.

the right direction. If she had come on any hidden rock there would have been no way of escape.

After proceeding in this way for rather more than ninety days, they arrived at a country called Java dvipa, where various forms of error and Brahmanism are flourishing, while Buddhism in it is not worth speaking of. After staying there for five months (Fā-hien) again embarked in another large merchantman which also had on board more than 200 men. They carried provisions for fifty days, and commenced the voyage on the sixteenth day of the fourth month.

Fā hien kept his retreat on board the ship. They took a course to the north-east, intending to fetch Kwang chow. After more than a month when the night drum had sounded the second watch, they encountered a black wind and tempestuous rain which threw the merchants and passengers into consternation. Fā hien again with all his heart directed his thoughts to Kwan-she-yin and the monkish communities of the land of Han and through their dread and mysterious protection was preserved to day-break. After day break the Brahmins deliberated together and said 'It is having this Śramaṇa on board which has occasioned our misfortune and brought us this great and bitter suffering. Let us land the bhikṣu and place him on some island shore. We must not for the sake of one man allow ourselves to be exposed to such imminent peril.' A patron of Fā hien, however, said to them, 'If you land the bhikṣu you must at the same time land me and if you do not then you must kill me. If you land this Śramaṇa when I get to the land of Han I will go to the king and inform against you. The king also reveres and believes the Law of Buddha and honours the bhikṣus. The merchants hereupon were perplexed and did not dare immediately to land (Fā-hien).

At this time the sky continued very dark and gloomy and the sailing masters looked at one another and made mistakes. More than seventy days passed (from their leaving Java) and the provisions and water were nearly exhausted. They used the salt water of the sea for cooking and carefully divided the (fresh) water, each man getting two pints. Soon the whole was nearly gone and the merchants took counsel and said 'At the ordinary rate of sailing we ought to have reached Kwang chow and now the time is passed by many days —

must we not have held a wrong course? Immediately they directed the ship to the north west, looking out for land, and after sailing day and night for twelve days they reached the shore on the south of mount Láo¹, on the borders of the prefecture of Ch'ing kwang², and immediately got good water and vegetables. They had passed through many perils and hardships, and had been in a state of anxious apprehension for many days together, and now suddenly arriving at this shore, and seeing those (well known) vegetables, the lei and kwoh³, they knew indeed that it was the land of Han. Not seeing however, any inhabitants nor any traces of them, they did not know whereabouts they were. Some said that they had not yet got to Kwang chow and others that they had passed it. Unable to come to a definite conclusion, (some of them) got into a small boat and entered a creek, to look for some one of whom they might ask what the place was. They found two hunters whom they brought back with them, and then called on Fâ hien to act as interpreter and question them. Fâ hien first spoke assuringly to them, and then slowly and distinctly asked them, 'Who are you?' They replied 'We are disciples of Buddha?' He then asked, 'What are you looking for among these hills?' They began to lie³, and said,

¹ They had got to the south of the Shan tung promontory, and the foot of mount Láo, which still rises under the same name on the extreme south of the peninsula east from Keáo Chow, and having the district of Tseih mih on the east of it. All the country there is included in the present Phing too Chow of the department Láo chow. The name Phing too dates from the Han dynasty but under the dynasty of the After Che (後齊) (A.D. 479-501) it was changed into Chang kwang. Fâ hien may have lived and composed the narrative of his travels after the change of name was adopted. See the Topographical Tables of the different Dynasties (歷代沿革表) published in 1815.

² What these vegetables exactly were it is difficult to say and there are different readings of the characters for them. Williams Dictionary under kwoh brings the two names together in a phrase, but the rendering of it is simply 'a soup of simples'. For two or three columns here however the text appears to me confused and imperfect.

³ I suppose these men were really hunters, and when brought before Fâ hien because he was a Śramana they thought they would please him by saying

'To-morrow is the fifteenth day of the seventh month. We wanted to get some peaches to present' to Buddha. He asked further 'What country is this?' They replied 'This is the border of the prefecture of Chang kwang, a part of Tsing chow under the (ruling) House of Tsin'. When they heard this, the merchants were glad, immediately asked for (a portion of) their money and goods and sent men to Chang-kwang city.

The prefect Le E was a reverent believer in the Law of Buddha. When he heard that a Śramaṇa had arrived in a ship across the sea, bringing with him books and images, he immediately came to the sea shore with an escort to meet (the traveller), and receive the books and images, and took them back with him to the seat of his government. On this the merchants went back in the direction of Yang chow², (but) when (Fā hien) arrived at Tsing-chow, (the prefect there)³ begged him (to remain with him) for a winter and a summer. After the summer retreat was ended, Fā hien, having been separated for a long time from his (fellow) masters, wished to hurry to Chang gan, but as the business which he had in hand was important, he went south to the Capital⁴, and at an interview with the masters (there) exhibited the Sūtras and the collection of the Vinaya (which he had procured).

After Fā hien set out from Chang gan, it took him six years to reach

they were disciples of Buddha. But what had disciples of Buddha to do with hunting and taking life? They were caught in their own trap, and said they were looking for peaches.

¹ The Chinese character here has occurred twice before but in a different meaning and connexion. Rémusat, Beal and Giles take it as equivalent to 'to sacrifice'. But his followers do not 'sacrifice' to Buddha. That is a priestly term and should not be employed of anything done at Buddhistic services.

² Probably the present department of Yang chow in Kiang soo, but as I have said in a previous note the narrative does not go on so clearly as it generally does.

³ Was, or could this prefect be Le E?

⁴ Probably not Chang gan but Nan king which was the capital of the Eastern Tsin dynasty under another name.

Central India¹, stoppages there extended over (other) six years, and on his return it took him three years to reach Tsing chow. The countries through which he passed were a few under thirty. From the sandy desert westwards on to India, the beauty of the dignified demeanour of the monkhood and of the transforming influence of the Law was beyond the power of language fully to describe, and reflecting how our masters had not heard any complete account of them, he therefore (went on) without regarding his own poor life, or (the dangers to be encountered) on the sea upon his return, thus incurring hardships and difficulties in a double form. He was fortunate enough, through the dread power of the three Honoured Ones², to receive help and protection in his perils, and therefore he wrote out an account of his experiences, that worthy readers might share with him in what he had heard and said³.

It was in the year Keah yin⁴, the twelfth year of the period E he of the

¹ The whole of this paragraph is probably Fà hien's own conclusion of his narrative. The second half of the second sentence, both in sentiment and style in the Chinese text, seems to necessitate our ascribing it to him writing on the impulse of his own thoughts in the same indirect form which he adopted for his whole narrative. There are, however, two peculiar phraseologies in it which might suggest the work of another hand. For the name India where the first¹ is placed a character is employed which is similarly applied nowhere else and again 'the three Honoured Ones, at which the second² is placed, must be the same as the three Precious Ones which we have met with so often, unless we suppose that 三尊 is printed in all the revisions for 世尊 'the World honoured one' which has often occurred. On the whole while I accept this paragraph as Fà hien's own I do it with some hesitation. That the following and concluding paragraph is from another hand there can be no doubt. And it is as different as possible in style from the simple and straightforward narrative of Fa hien.

² There is an error of date here for which it is difficult to account. The year Keah yin was A.D. 414 but that was the tenth year of the period E he, and not the twelfth the cyclical designation of which was Ping shan. According to the preceding paragraph, Fà hien's travels had occupied him fifteen years so that counting from A.D. 399 the year Ke hâe as that in which he set out the year of his getting to Tsing chow would have been Kwei chow the ninth year of the

(Eastern) Tsin dynasty, the year star being in Virgo Libra, in the summer, at the close of the period of retreat, that I met the devotee Fâ-hien. On his arrival I lodged him with myself in the winter study¹, and there, in our meetings for conversation, I asked him again and again about his travels. The man was modest and complaisant, and answered readily according to the truth. I thereupon advised him to enter into details where he had at first only given a summary, and he proceeded to relate all things in order from the beginning to the end. He said himself, 'When I look back on what I have gone through, my heart is involuntarily moved, and the perspiration flows forth. That I encountered danger and trod the most perilous places, without thinking of or sparing myself, was because I had a definite aim, and thought of nothing but to do my best in my simplicity and straightforwardness. Thus it was that I exposed my life where death seemed inevitable, if I might accomplish but a ten thousandth part of what I hoped.' These words affected me in turn, and I thought — 'This man is one of those who have seldom been seen from ancient times to the present. Since the Great Doctrine flowed on to the East there has been no one to be compared with Hien in his forgetfulness of self and search for the Law. Henceforth I know that the influence of sincerity finds no obstacle, how-

period E he, and we might join on 'This year Keah-yin' to that paragraph as the date at which the narrative was written out for the bamboo-tablets and the silk, and then begins the Envoy 'In the twelfth year of E he. This would remove the error as it stands at present but unfortunately there is a particle at the end of the second date (矣) which seems to tie the twelfth year of E he to Keah yin, as another designation of it. The year star is the planet Jupiter the revolution of which in twelve years, constitutes 'a great year'. Whether it would be possible to fix exactly by mathematical calculation in what year Jupiter was in the Chinese zodiacal sign embracing part of both Virgo and Scorpio, and thereby help to solve the difficulty of the passage I do not know, and in the meantime must leave that difficulty as I have found it.

¹ We do not know who the writer of the Envoy was. 'The winter study or library' would be the name of the apartment in his monastery or house, where he sat and talked with Fâ hien.

ever great which it does not overcome and that force of will does not fail to accomplish whatever service it undertakes. Does not the accomplishing of such service arise from forgetting (and disregarding) what is (generally) considered as important, and attaching importance to what is (generally) forgotten?

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法顯傳終

留共冬齋，因講集之際，重問遊歷，其人恭順，言輒依實，由是先所略者，勸令詳載。顯復具敘始末，自云：「顯尋所經，不覺心動，汗流，所以乘危履險，不惜此形者，蓋是志有所存，專其愚直，故投命於必死之地，以達萬一之冀。於是感歎斯人，以爲古今罕有，自大教東流，未有忘身求法如顯之比。然後知誠之所感，無窮否而大通，志之所將，無功業而不成。成夫功業者，豈不由忘夫所重，重夫所忘者哉？」

法顯傳

四十四

言已過，莫知所定，即乘小船，入浦覓人，欲問其處，得兩獵人，
即將歸，令法顯譯語問之，法顯先安慰之，徐問汝是何人，答
言，我是佛弟子，又問汝入山何所求，其便詭言，明當七月十
五日，欲取桃臘佛，又問此是何國，答言，此青川長廣郡界，統
屬晉家，聞已，商人歡喜，即乞其財物，遣人往長廣郡，大守李
崑敬信佛法，聞有沙門，持經像，乘船泛海而至，即將人從，來
至海邊，迎接經像，歸至郡治，商人於是還向揚川，到青川，請
法顯一冬一夏夏坐說，法顯離諸師，久欲趣長安，但所營事
重，遂便南下向都，就師出經律藏，法顯發長安，六年到中印
國，停經六年，還經三年，達青川，凡所遊履，減三十國，沙河已
西，迄于天竺，衆僧威儀法化之美，不可詳說，竊惟諸師，未得
備聞，是人，不顧微命，浮海而還，艱難具更幸，蒙三尊威靈，危
而得濟，故將竹帛疏所經歷，欲令賢者同其聞見，○是歲甲
寅，晉義熙十二年矣，歲在壽星，夏安居末，迎法顯道人，既至，

1 J 說 2 M 挑 W 3 S 劉 4 S M omit 5 S M omit
6 S 劉法 M 留法 7 After 顯 S M insert 還 8 S M omit 9 S M omit
10 S M omit 11 S M omit 12 S M 歷 13 J 來 14 S M omit 15 S M omit

傳顯法

道婆羅門興盛，佛法不足言停。此國五月日，復隨他商人，大船
 上，亦二百許人，齎五十日糧，以四月十六日發，法顯於船上安
 居，東北行趣廣州，一月餘日，夜鼓二時，遇黑風暴雨，商人賈客，
 皆悉惶怖，法顯爾時，亦一心念觀世音及漢地眾僧，蒙威神祐，
 得至天曉，曉已，諸婆羅門議言，坐載此沙門，使我不利，道此大
 苦，當下比丘，置海島邊，不可爲一人令我等危峻。法顯擅越言，
 汝若下此比丘，亦并下我，不爾，便當殺我。如其下此沙門，吾到
 漢地，當向國王言汝也。漢地王亦敬信佛法，重比丘僧，諸商人
 躊躇，不敢便下。于時天多連陰，海師相望僻誤，遂徑七十餘日，
 糧食水漿欲盡，取海鹹水作食，分好水，人可得二升，遂便欲盡。
 商人議言，常行時，政可五十日，便到廣州，今已過期多日，將無
 僻耶？即便西北行求岸，晝夜十二日，到長廣郡界，牢山南岸，便
 得好水菜，但徑涉險難，憂懼積日，忽得至此岸，見藜藿菜，依然
 知是漢地，然不見人民及行跡，未知是何許，或言未至廣州，或

1 S M 糧 2 Contracted form in text 3 M 險 4 After 顯 S M insert 木 泓
 1 S M 汝 2 S M 正 3 After 州, S M insert 爾 4 Shou'd be 藜 泓

法顯傳

二十四章

人云，此無經，本我心口誦耳。○法顯在此國二年，更求得彌沙塞律藏本，得長阿含雜阿含，復得一部雜藏，此悉漢土所無者。得此梵本已，卽載商人大船上，可有二百餘人，後係一小船，每行艱嶮，以備大船毀壞，得好信風，東下三日，便值大風，船漏水，入商人欲趣小船，小船上人恐人來多，卽斫絙斷，商人大怖，命在須臾，恐船水滿，卽取麤財貨，擲著水中，法顯亦以君墀及桌罐并餘物，棄擲海中，但恐商人擲去，徑像唯一心念觀世音，及歸命漢地衆僧，我遠行求法，願威神歸流，得到所止，如是大風晝夜十三日，到一島，潮退之後，見船漏處，卽補塞之，於是復前海中多有抄賊，遇輒無全，大海彌漫無邊，不識東西，唯望日月星宿而進，若陰雨時，爲逐風去，亦無所准，當夜闇時，但見大浪相搏，晃若火色，鼃鼃水性，怪異之屬，商人荒悚，不知那向，每深無底，又無下石在處，至天晴已，乃知東西，還復望正而進，若值伏石，則無活路，如是九十許日，乃到一國，名耶婆提，其國外

止

船, and elsewhere

漏

年持

S M omit

S M 桴

Text has a vulgar form

S M 達

S M invert

法顯傳

一十四

當復至西月氏國，若干百年當至于闐國，若干百年當至
屈茨國，若干百年當復來到漢地，若干百年當復至師子國，
若干百年當還中天竺，已當上兜術天上，彌勒菩薩見而嘆
曰：釋迦文佛鉢王，即共諸天，華香供養七日，七日已，還閻浮
提，海龍王將入龍宮，至彌勒將成道時，鉢還分爲四，復本類
那山上，彌勒成道已，四天王當復應念佛，如先佛法，賢劫千
佛，共用一鉢鉢去已，佛法漸滅，佛法滅後，人壽轉短，乃至五
歲五歲之時，粳米酥油，皆悉化滅，人民極惡，捉草木，則變成
刀杖，其相傷割殺，其中有福者，逃入山，惡人相殺盡已，還
復來出，其相謂言：昔人壽極長，但爲惡甚，作諸非法，故我等
得命，遂爾短促，乃至五歲，我今共行諸善，起慈悲心，修行信
道，如是，各行信義，展轉得信，乃至八萬歲，彌勒出世，初轉法
輪時，先度釋迦遺法中弟子出家人，及受三歸，五戒，八齋法，
供養三寶者，第二，第三次，度有緣者，法顯爾時欲寫此經，其

1 After 地, S M insert 在 2 After 竺, S M insert 到中天 3 S M 歎
4 S M 持 5 S M 頻 6 S M 此 7 S M 十 8 S M omit
9 Text with 外 inside 10 S M 十 11 S M 仁 12 S M omit 13 S M omit

法顯傳

十四

道耶，其便以實答，言是羅漢，既終，王卽按經律以羅漢法葬之，於精舍東四五里，積好大薪，縱廣可三丈餘，高亦兩近上著栴檀，沉水，諸香木，四邊作階上，持淨好白蠟，周匝蒙積作大盤狀，似此間轎車，但無龍角耳，當闍時，王及國人，四衆咸集，以華香供養，從盤至墓所，王自華香供養，供養訖，盤若積上，酥油遍灌，¹後燒之火，然之時，人人敬心，各脫上服，及羽儀傘蓋，遙擲火中，以助闍維，闍維已，收斂取骨，卽以起塔，法顯至不及其生存，唯見葬時王寫信佛法，欲爲衆僧作新精舍，先設大會，飯食僧，供養已，乃選好上牛一隻，金銀寶物，莊校角上，作好金犂，王自耕，²規郭四邊，³後割給民戶，田宅，書以鐵券，自是已後代代相承，無敢廢易，法顯在此國聞天竺道人，於高座上，誦經云，佛鉢本在毘舍離，今在捷陀衛，竟若干百年，⁴法顯聞誦時，有定歲數，但今忘耳，

¹ S M 積 ² Before 作, S M insert 上 ³ S M 牀 ⁴ S M 輜
⁵ Probably a mistake for 維, as below ⁶ S M 檢 ⁷ After 耕, S M insert
頃 ⁸ S M omit ⁹ The thirteen characters that follow with 之 in the parenthesis c
marks are in all the recens ons in two parallel columns in smaller text They are
equivalent to a marginal note with 之 and S and M insert 之 after 誦

法顯傳 三十九章 三十九

可布施投身餓虎，不憚髑腦，如是種種苦行爲衆生，故成佛。在世四十五年，說法教化，令不安者安，不度者度，衆生緣盡，乃般泥洹。泥洹已來，一千四百九十七歲，世間眼滅，衆生長悲，却後十日，佛齒當出，至無畏山精舍，國內道俗欲殖福者，各各平治道路，嚴飾巷陌，辦衆華香，供養之具，如是唱已，王便夾道兩邊，作菩薩五百身已來，種種變現，或作須大擎，或作瞋變，或作象王，或作鹿馬，如是形像，皆彩畫莊校，狀若生人，然後佛齒乃出中道而行，隨路供養，到無畏精舍，佛堂上，道俗雲集，燒香燃燈，種種法事，晝夜不息。滿九十日，乃還城內精舍，城內精舍至齋日，則開門戶禮敬如法。無畏精舍東四十里，有一山，山中有精舍，名支提，可有二千僧，僧中有一大德沙門，名達摩罽諦，其國人民，皆共宗仰，住一石室中，四十許年，常行慈心，能感蛇鼠，使同止一室，而不相害。○城南七里，有一精舍，名摩訶毘訶羅，有三千僧住，有一高德沙門，戒行清潔，國人咸疑是羅漢，臨終之時，王來省視，依法集僧而問比丘得

法顯傳

三十八

故以八九圍柱柱樹，樹當柱處心生，遂穿柱而下，入地成根，大可四圍許，柱雖中裂，猶裹其外，人亦不去，樹下起精舍，中有坐像，道俗敬仰，無倦。城中又起佛齒精舍，皆七寶作，王淨修梵行，城內人敬信之情亦篤。其國立治已來，無有飢荒喪亂，衆僧庫藏多有珍寶，無價摩尼，其王入僧庫遊觀，見摩尼珠，卽生貪心，欲奪取之，三日乃悟，卽詣僧中稽首悔前罪心，因白僧言，願僧立制，自今已後，勿聽王入庫看，比丘滿四十臘，然後得入。其城中多居士長者，薩薄商人，屋宇嚴麗，巷陌平整，四衢道頭皆作說法堂，月八日、十四日、十五日，鋪施高座，道俗四衆皆集聽法。其國人云：「都可六萬僧，悉有衆食，王別於城內，供養五六千人，衆食須者，則持鉢往取，隨器所容，皆滿而還。」佛齒常以三月中出之，未出前十日，王莊校大象，使一辯說人著王衣服，騎象上，擊鼓唱言：「菩薩從三阿僧祇劫作行，不惜身命，以國城妻子及挑眼與人，割肉貿鵲，截

Before 其, S has 畏 M 在 * S M invert * M 饑 * S M 告

* After 入 S, M insert 其 * After 可, M inserts 五 * S M omit,

* S, M 本 W * S M omit. ** Text has 皮 on left. ** S M 苦 ** S M omit

傳顯法

五十三 章六十三

百間，最上有泉水，循石室前，繞房而流，周圍廻曲，如是乃至下重，順房流，從戶而出，諸僧室中，處處穿石，作窓牖，通明，室中朗然，都無幽闇，其室四角頭穿石，作梯，蹬上處，今人形小，緣梯上，正得至，昔人一脚躡處，因名此寺爲波羅越，波羅越者，天竺名，鶴也，其寺中，常有羅漢在此土丘荒，無人民居，去山極遠，方有村，皆是邪見，不識佛法，沙門，婆羅門，及諸異學，彼國人民，常見飛人，來入此寺，于時諸國道人，欲來禮此寺者，彼村人則言，汝何以不飛耶？我見此間道人皆飛，道人方便答言，翅未成耳，遠覲國幽嶮，道路艱難，難而知處欲往者，要當資錢貨，施彼國王，王然後遣人送，展轉相付，示其巡路，法願竟不得往，承彼土人言，故說之耳。○從波羅叉國東行，追到巴連弗邑，法願本求戒律，而北天竺諸國，皆師師口傳，無本可寫，是以遠步，乃至中天竺，於此摩訶衍僧伽藍，得一部律，是摩訶衍祇衆律，佛在世時，最初大衆所行也，於祇桓精舍傳其本，自份十八部，各有師資，大歸不異，然小小不同，或用闕塞，但

王子出家學道，却後七日，當成佛，辟支佛聞已，即取泥洹，故名此處爲仙人鹿野苑。世尊成道已，後人於此處起精舍。佛欲度拘隣等五人，五人相謂言：「此瞿曇沙門，六年苦行，日食一麻一米，尚不得道，況入人間，恣身口意，何道之有？」今日來者，慎勿與語。佛到，五人皆起作禮處，復北行六十步，佛於此東向坐，始轉法輪，度拘隣等五人處。其北二十步，佛爲彌勒授記處。其南五十步，翳羅鉢龍問佛：「我何時得免此龍身？」此處皆起塔，見在中。有二僧伽藍，悉有僧在。自鹿野苑精舍西北行十三由旬，有國名拘睢彌，其精舍名瞿師羅園，佛昔在處。今故有衆僧，多小乘學。從東行八由延，佛本於此度惡鬼處，亦常在此住，經行坐處，皆起塔，亦有僧伽藍，可百餘僧。○從此南行二百由延，有國名達覓，是過去迦葉佛僧伽藍，穿大石山作之，几有五重，最下重作象形，有五百間石室，第二層作師子形，有四百間，第三層作馬形，有三百間，第四層作牛形，有二百間，第五層作鵠形，有一

1 After 門, S, M insert 本
 2 S 受
 3 After 時, S, M insert 當
 4 S, M 延
 5 S, M 嘗
 6 So S, M Text has 身 instead of 牙
 7 S, M omit

三十三 章四十三 傳顯法 章三十三

常至貝多樹下，悔過自責，受八戒齋。王夫人問：王常遊何處？羣臣答言：恒在貝多樹下。夫人伺王不在時，遣人伐其樹倒。王來見之，述問蹠地。諸臣以水灑面，良久乃解。王卽以埽界四邊，以百罌牛乳灌樹根身，四枝布地，作是誓言：若樹不生，我終不起。作是誓已，樹便卽根上而生。以至於今，高減十丈。○從此南三里行，到一山名鷄足。大迦葉今在此山中，攀山下入，入處不容人，下入極遠，有旁孔，迦葉全身在此中。在孔外有迦葉本洗手土。彼方人若頭痛者，以此土塗之，卽差。此山中卽日故有諸羅漢在。彼方諸國道人，年年往供養迦葉，心濃至者，夜卽有羅漢來，共言論釋其疑。已忽然不現。此山椿木茂盛，又多師子、虎、狼，不可妄行。○法顯還向巴連弗邑，順恒水西行十由延，得一精舍，名曠野，佛所在處。今現有僧，復順恒水西行十二由延，到迦尸國，波羅柰城。城東北十里許，得仙人鹿野苑精舍。此苑本有辟支佛住，常有野鹿栖宿。世尊將成道，諸天於空中唱言：白淨

法顯傳

二十三

治罪人。王自念言，鬼王尙能作地獄治罪人，我是人主，何不作地獄治罪人耶？卽問臣等，誰能爲我作地獄？主治罪人者，臣答言，唯有極惡人能作耳。王卽遣臣，遍求惡人。見池水邊有一人，長壯，異色，髮黃，目青，以脚鉤角，口呼禽獸，禽獸來，便射殺，無得脫者，得此人已，將來與王。王密勅之，汝作四方高牆，內植種種華果，作好浴池，莊嚴校飾，令人渴仰，牢作門戶，有人入者，輒捉，種種治罪，莫使得出，設使我入，亦治罪莫放。今拜汝作地獄主。時有比丘，次第乞食，入其門，獄卒見之，便欲治罪。比丘惶怖求請，須臾聽我中食，俄頃復有人入，獄卒內置碓臼，中擣之，赤沫出。比丘見已，思惟此身無常，苦空，如泡，如沫，卽得阿羅漢，旣而獄卒捉內鐵湯中，比丘心頗欣悅，火滅湯冷，中生蓮華，比丘坐上。爾時，獄卒卽往白王，獄中奇怪，願王往看。王言，我前有要，今不敢往。獄卒言，此非小事，王宜疾往，更改先要。王卽隨入，比丘爲王說法，王得信解，卽壞地獄，悔前所作衆惡，由是信重三寶。

1 S M 泄

2 M omits

3 S M 眼

4 Before 角, S M insert 兼

5 S, M 呼

6 S M omit

7 J 日

8 S M omit

9 S M omit

法顯傳 三十三章 一十三

菩薩前到貝多樹下，敷吉祥草，東向而坐。時魔王遣三玉女，從北來試。魔王自從南來試，菩薩以足指案地，魔兵退散。三女變成老母，自上苦行六年處，及此諸處，後人皆於中起塔立像，今皆在佛成道已，七日觀樹，受解脫樂處。佛於貝多樹下，東西經行七日處，諸天化作七寶堂，供養佛七日處，文鱗百龍七日繞佛處，佛於尼拘律樹下，方石上東向坐，梵天來請佛處，四天王奉鉢處，五百賈人授剡蜜處，度迦葉兄弟師徒千人處，此諸處亦盡起塔。佛得道處，有三僧伽藍，皆有僧住，衆僧民戶，供給繞足，無所乏少，戒律嚴峻，威儀坐起，入衆之法，佛在世時，聖衆所行，以至于今，佛泥洹已來，四大塔處，相承不絕。四大塔者，佛生處，得道處，轉法輪處，履泥洹處。○阿育王昔作小兒時，當道戲，遇迦葉佛行乞食，小兒歡喜，卽以一抔土施佛，佛持還泥經行地，因此果報，作鐵輪王。王閻浮提乘鐵輪，案行閻浮提，見鐵圍兩山間地獄治罪人，卽問羣臣，此是何等，答言，是鬼王閻羅王。

法顯傳

章一十三 十三

石，昔有比丘，在上經行，思惟是身無常，苦空，得不淨觀，歎患是身，即捉刀欲自斃，復念世尊制戒，不得自斃，又念雖爾，我今但欲煞三毒賊，便以刀自刎，始傷肉，得須臾，既半，得阿那含，斷已，成阿羅漢，果般泥洹。○從此西行四由延，到伽耶城，城內亦空荒，復南行二十里，到菩薩本苦行六年處，處處有林木，從此西行三里，到佛入水洗浴，天案樹枝，得攀出池處，又北行二里，得彌家女奉佛乳糜處，從此北行二里，佛於一大樹下，石上東向，坐食糜，樹石，今悉在，石可廣長六尺，高二尺許，中因寒暑均調，樹木或數千歲，乃至萬歲，從此東北行半由延，到一石窟，菩薩入中西向，結跏趺坐，心念，若我成道，當有神驗，石壁上，即有佛影現，長三尺許，今猶明亮，時，天地大動，諸天在空中白言，此非是過去當來諸佛成道處，去此西南行，減半由延，到貝多樹下，是過去當來諸佛成道處，諸天說是語已，即便在前唱導，導引而去，菩薩起行，離樹三十步，天授吉祥草，菩薩受之，復行十五步，五百青雀飛來，繞菩薩三匝而去。

法顯傳 第十三章 九十二

曰雕窠窟山。窟前有四佛坐處。又諸羅漢各各有石窟坐禪處。動有數百。佛在石室前。東西經行。調達於山北嶮巖間。橫擲石。傷佛足指處。石猶在。佛說法堂已毀壞。止有塼壁基在。其山峰秀端嚴。是五山中最髙法顯於新城中買香華。由燈。倩二舊比丘送。法顯到耆闍崛山。華香供養。然燈續明。慨然悲傷。收淚而言。佛昔於此說首楞嚴法。顯生不值佛。但見遺跡處所而已。卽於石窟前誦首楞嚴。停止一宿。還向新城。○出舊城北行三百餘步。道西迦蘭陀竹園精舍。今現在。衆僧掃灑精舍北二三里有尸磨賒那尸磨賒那者。漢言棄死人墓田。博南山西行三百步。有一石室。名賓波羅窟。佛食後常於此坐禪。又西行五六里。山北陰中。有一石室。名車帝。佛況洹後。五百阿羅漢結集經處。出經時。鋪三高座。莊嚴校飾。舍利弗在左。目連在右。五百數中少一阿羅漢。大迦葉爲上座。時阿難在門外。不得入。其處起塔。今亦在博山。亦有諸羅漢坐禪石窟甚多。出舊城北。下三里。有調達石室。離此五十步。有大方黑

法顯傳

由延至一小孤石山，山頭有石室，石室南向，佛坐其中，天帝釋將天樂殷迴彈琴樂佛處，帝釋以四十二事問佛，一一以指畫石，畫跡故在，此中亦有僧伽藍從此西南行一由延，到那羅聚落，是舍利弗本生村，舍利弗還於此中般泥洹，卽此處起塔，今現在從此西行一由延，到王舍新城，新城者是阿闍世王所造，中有二僧伽藍，出城西門三百步，阿闍世王得佛一分舍利，起塔，高大嚴麗，出城南四里，南向入谷，至五山裏，五山周圍，狀若城郭，卽是苾沙王舊城，城東西可五六里，南北七八里，舍利弗目連初見額鞞處，尼犍子作火坑毒飯請佛處，阿闍世王酒飲畢象，欲害佛處，城東北角曲中，耆舊於菴婆羅園中，起精舍，請佛及千二百五十弟子供養處，今故在其城中空荒，無人住。○入谷博山，東南上十五里，到耆闍崛山，未至頭三里，有石窟南向，佛本於此坐禪，西北三十步，復有一石窟，阿難於中坐禪，天魔波旬化作雕鷄，在窟前，恐阿難佛以神足力隔石，舒手摩阿難肩，怖卽得止，鳥迹手孔今悉在，故

¹ After 此, S M has 村 ² After 今, S M has 亦 ³ Text has the 鳥 beneath

法顯傳 第二十八章 七十二

藍凡諸中國，唯此國城邑爲大，民人富盛，競行仁義，年年常以建卯月八日行像，作四輪車，縛竹作五層有崇，檀¹椹²戟³高二丈餘許，其狀如塔，以白蠟纏上，然後彩畫，作諸天形像，以金銀瑠璃莊校，其上懸繪幡蓋，四邊作龕，皆有坐佛，菩薩立侍，可有二十車，車車莊嚴各異，當此日，境內道俗皆集，作倡伎樂，華香供養，婆羅門子來請佛，佛次第入城，入城內再宿，通夜燃燈，伎樂供養，國國皆爾，其國長者居士，各於城內立福德醫藥舍，凡國中貧窮孤獨殘廢一切病人，皆詣此舍，種種供給，醫師看病，隨宜飲食及湯藥，皆令得安，差者自去，阿育王壞七塔，作八萬四千塔，最初所作大塔，在城南三里餘，此塔前有佛迹，起精舍，戶北向，塔南有一石柱，圍丈四五，高三丈餘，上有銘題云，阿育王以閻浮提，布施四方僧，還以錢贖，如是三反，塔北三四百步，阿育王本於此作泥梨城，泥梨城⁴中有石柱，亦高三丈餘，上有師子，柱上有銘，記作泥梨城因緣，及年數日月○從此東南行九

¹ M 檀椹, S 檀椹

² S M 中

³ After 佛 S M insert 脚

⁴ S M repeat

⁵ S M omit

⁶ After 中, S M insert 央

法顯傳

六十二

巴連弗邑是阿育王所治城。城中王宮殿，皆使鬼神作，累石起牆闕，彫文刻鏤，非世所造。今故現在阿育王弟，得羅漢道，常在耆闍崛山，志樂閑靜，王敬心欲請於家供養，以樂山靜，不肯受請。王語弟言，但受我請，當爲汝於城裏作山，乃具飲食，召諸鬼神而告之曰：「明日悉受我請，無坐席，各自資來。」明日諸大鬼神各資大石來，壁方四五步，坐訖，即使鬼神畢作大石山，又於山底以五大方石作一石室，可長三丈，廣二丈，高一丈餘，有一大乘婆羅門子，名羅汰私迷，住此城裏，爽悟多智，事無不達，以清淨自居。國王宗敬師事，若往問訊，不敢並坐，王設以受敬心執手，執手已，婆羅門輒自灌洗，年可五十餘，舉國瞻仰，賴此一人弘宣佛法，外道不能得加陵衆僧於阿育王塔邊造摩訶衍僧伽藍，甚嚴麗，亦有小乘寺，都合六七百僧衆，威儀庠序，可觀。四方高德沙門及學問人，欲求義理，皆詣此寺。婆羅門子師，亦名文殊師利，國內大德沙門，諸大乘比丘，皆宗仰焉，亦住此僧伽

¹ S M omit

² In text with 土 at the side.

³ S M omit

⁴ S M 持

⁵ S, M 辟

⁶ S M omit.

⁷ S M omit

⁸ After 私, S M insert 婆

法顯傳

卷五十二 四十二

作信，遣還其家處，立石柱，上有銘題。○自此東行十由延，到毘舍離國，毘舍離城北大林，重閣精舍，佛在處，及阿難半身塔，其城裏本菴婆羅女家，爲佛起塔，今故現在城南三里，道西，菴婆羅女以園施佛，作佛在處，佛將般泥洹，與諸弟子出毘舍離城，西門，迴身右轉，顧看毘舍離城，告諸弟子，是吾最後所行處，後人於此處起塔，城西北三里，有塔名放弓仗，以名此者，恒水流有一國王，王小夫人，生一肉胎，大夫人妒之言，汝生不祥之徵，卽盛以木函，擲恒水中，下流有國王遊觀，見水上木函，開看，見一小兒，端正殊特，王卽取養之，遂便長大，甚勇健，所往征伐，無不摧伏，次伐父王本國，王大愁憂，小夫人問如何故愁憂，王曰，彼國王有千子，勇健無比，欲求伐吾國，是以愁耳，小夫人言，王勿愁憂，但於城東作高樓，賊來時，置我樓上，則我能却之，王如其言，至賊來時，小夫人於樓上，謗賊言，汝是我子，何故作反逆事，賊曰，汝是何人云，是我母，小夫人曰，汝等若不信者，盡仰向張口，小夫人卽以兩手，搆兩乳，乳作

‘S M omit. ‘S M 五 ‘S M 王 ‘J 來 ‘S M 到 ‘S M 子 W

‘ Before 作 S M insert 名

法顯傳 卷四十二 三十二

已，語王言，汝供養若能勝是，便可與之持去，吾不與汝爭，阿育王知其供養具，非世之所有，於是便還此中荒蕪，無人灑掃，常有羆象，以鼻取水灑地，取雜華香而供養塔，諸國有道人來，欲禮拜塔，遇象大怖，依樹自匿，見象如法供養，道人大自悲感，此中无有僧伽藍，可供養此塔，乃令羆灑掃，道人即捨大戒，還作沙彌，自挽草木，平治處所，使得淨潔，勸化國王作僧住處，已爲寺主，今現有僧住，此事在近，自爾相承至今，恒以沙彌爲寺主。○從此東行，三由延，大子遺車匿，白馬，還處，亦起塔，從此東行，四由延，到炭塔，亦有僧伽藍，復東行十二由延，到拘夷那竭城，城北雙樹間，希連禪河邊，世尊於此北首而般泥洹，及須跋最後得道處，以金相供養，世尊七日處，金剛力士放金杵處，八王分舍利處，諸處皆起塔，有僧伽藍，今悉現在其城中，人民亦希，止有衆僧，民戶從此東南行十二由延，到諸梨車，欲逐佛般泥洹處，而佛不聽，心佛不肯去，佛化作大深塹，不得渡，佛與鉢

' S M omit ' S M omit ' S M omit ' So but should be 大 R
 ' S M omit ' S M 稀 ' S 遠 ' In text with 水 at the side

佛得道，還見父王處，五百釋子出家，向優波離作福，地六種震動處，佛爲諸天說法，四天王等守四門，父王不得入處，佛在尼拘律樹下東向坐，大受道布，施佛僧伽梨處，此樹猶在。瑠璃王煞釋種，釋種死，盡得須陀洹，立塔，今亦在。城東北數里有王田，大子坐樹下，觀耕者，處城東五十里，有王園，園名論民，夫人入池洗浴，出池北岸二十步，舉手攀樹枝，東向生大子，大子墮地，行七步，二龍王浴大子身，浴處造作井，及上洗浴池，今衆僧常取飲之。凡諸佛有四處常定，一者，成道處，二者，輪法輪處，三者，說法論議伏外道處，四者，上忉利天，爲母說法來下處，餘者則隨時示現焉。迦維羅衛國大空荒，人民希疎，道路怖畏，白象，師子，不可妄行。○從佛生處，東行五由延，有國名藍莫，此國王得佛一分舍利，還歸起塔，卽名藍莫塔，塔邊有池，池中有龍，常守護此塔，晝夜供養，阿育王出世，欲破八塔，作八萬四千塔，破七塔已，大欲破此塔，龍便現身，持阿育王入其宮中，觀請供養具，

‘ S M omit.
‘ S M 先

‘ S M 琉

‘ S M 殺

‘ After 種, S M insert
‘ S M omit

‘ S M omit.

‘ Probably should be 轉

‘ S M omit

法顯傳

四章五

行像，停三月，日其國中有四大僧伽藍，不數小者，從四月一日，城裏便掃灑道路，莊嚴巷陌，其城門上張大幢幕，事事嚴飾，王及夫人、嫗女，皆在其中。豐摩帝僧是大乖學，王所敬重，最先行像，離城三四里，作四輪像車，高三丈餘，狀如行殿，七寶莊校，懸繪幡蓋，像立車中，二菩薩侍，作諸天侍從，皆以金銀彫瑩，懸於虛空，像去門百步，王脫天冠，易著新衣，徒跣持華香，翼從出城，迎像，頭面禮足，散花燒香，像入城時，門樓上夫人嫗女，遙散衆花，紛紛而下，如是莊嚴供具，車車各異，一僧伽藍則一日行像，自月一日爲始，至十四日行像，乃訖行像訖，王及夫人，乃還宮，耳北城西七八里，有僧伽藍，名王新寺，作來八十年，經三王方成，可高二十五丈，彫文刻鏤，金銀覆上，衆寶合成，塔後作佛堂，莊嚴妙好，梁柱戶扉，牕牖，皆以金薄，別作僧房，亦嚴麗整飾，非言可盡，領東六國諸王所有上價寶物，多作供養，人用者少。○

既過四月行像，僧留一人，隨胡道人向剎寶法顯等，道向子合。

